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ABSTRACT

This booklet presents information to help teachers understand three influences on children's citizenship development and offers practical suggestions to enrich their citizenship education experiences. The three influences on citizenship development are role models (people that children imitate): institutional environments (children's physical, social, and emotional environments); and individual development (the way children grow and mature). Chapter I summarizes theory and research on the complexity and purpose of citizenship education: describes an active approach to citizenship education: and explores the significant influences upon children of role models, institutional environments, and individual development. Chapter II describes 36 interdisciplinary activities and programs for elementary and secondary students which can be adapted to a variety of learning situations. Each is based on or incorporates recommendations from Chapter I about the influence of role models, institutional environments, or individual development. For each activity the booklet identifies grade level and subject area, skills involved, materials needed, time required, objectives, and directions. A concluding section summarizes activities for children to do at home or in their community. These are described in depth in a related document (SO 012 405). (AV)

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WORDS INTO ACTION:

A Classroom Guide to Children's Citizenship Education

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Introduction

If we were to look at the state of our country as reflected in news headlines over the past few years, we would see a series of unsettling trends:

- The United States as a major world power has experienced an erosion of its political and economic status.
- American citizens have become increasingly apathetic or hostile and suspicious toward government institutions, major corporations, and political participation.
- America's cultural and ethnic minorities, as well as its majority population, have become cynical about equal rights legislation and seem to be building toward a confrontation over its execution.
- Many citizens of this country seem to have become self-centered, alienated, passive, and antisocial—disenchanted with American society and culture.
- The value and payoff of American education in general and citizenship education in particular have been called into question by youngsters and adults alike.

Considering the impact of these trends on the future, it may not be an overstatement to say that America has reached a crisis point as a nation.

Feeling an obligation to help reverse these trends, educators and researchers have been stressing the importance of a renewed commitment to citizenship education in the United States. Among these men and women there is clear consensus that education for citizenship is vital and should be part not only of children's formal schooling but also of what they learn at home and in the community. Responding to this call, Research for Better Schools, Inc. has developed this booklet for individuals who would like to enhance children's citizenship education and extend it beyond the civics classroom.

This booklet, *Words Into Action*, will (a) present information to help you understand three influences on children's citizenship education and (b) offer practical suggestions to help enrich children's citizenship education. In it research and theoretical literature has been summarized as have a number of practical learning activities. Since this booklet is meant to be *used*, we have tried to keep it as straightforward and as free from jargon as possible. When

technical terms are used, we have tried to explain them. More scholarly discussions of citizenship education are included in the bibliography.

The present booklet is not intended to be a comprehensive examination of all areas of citizenship education. Neither is it a comprehensive examination of all the variables of learning that influence children's citizenship education. Rather, it is a summary of significant theory, research, and practical applications that are related to several key influences on citizenship education: role models, institutional environments, and individual development. Role models are people that children imitate; institutional environments are the physical, social, and emotional surroundings of children; and individual development is the way children grow and mature.

We chose these three influences for several reasons. One, they are currently the dominant focus of much of the theory and research in citizenship education. Two, it is generally agreed that these three influences are powerful ones that exert a long-lasting effect on children. Three, it is strongly suggested that these influences play an important part in the development of two important aspects of children's citizenship education: their sense of personal and social responsibility.

In the first chapter of this booklet, "WORDS," we summarize a great deal of theory, research, and commentary to help you understand citizenship education in the United States today. In this summary we draw from many educational authors, commentators, and researchers as well as from experts in other fields such as sociology and political science. In the first section of the chapter, we discuss the general field of citizenship education: its complexity; its purposes; and an active approach to it. In the second section we examine the three key influences on citizenship education that we named above—role models, institutional environments, and individual development—and we present some recommendations for changing these influences to enhance children's citizenship education.

In the second chapter, "ACTION," we offer a sampling of educational activities and programs, developed by teachers and other practitioners, which can be easily adapted to a variety of learning situations and settings. These activities are, in most cases, applications of the research and theory summarized in the first section. Each is based on or incorporates recommendations about the influence of role models, institutional environments, or individual development. This chapter also summarizes a few commercial resource materials for citizenship education. They were selected because they too exemplify practical applications of the research and theory.

WORDS: Theory and Research in Citizenship Education

I. Investigating Citizenship Education

Although citizenship as an area of educational focus has a history that stretches back to the ancient Greeks, citizenship education as an area for research is a relatively recent development. In its initial stages, a great deal of this research often seemed to produce inconclusive, even contradictory results. There seemed to be two main reasons for this, both related to the complexity of citizenship education. First, researchers found it very difficult to make a causal connection between behaviors and attitudes characteristic of good citizenship and specific educational occurrences. That is, it was hard to say that good citizenship resulted if children were taught one thing or if they were taught something else (Butts, 1977; Jencks, Smith, Acland, Bane, Cohen, Gintis, Heyns, & Michaelson, 1974; Sullivan, Marcus, Piereson, & Feldman, 1979). Second, and most important, researchers (and almost anyone else who investigated or tried to describe citizenship education) found it nearly impossible to define citizenship satisfactorily and to specify what behaviors and attitudes went with being a good citizen. That is, they were not exactly sure what is citizenship, nor were they sure how to recognize someone who was a good citizen (Council of Chief State School Officers, 1976; Meyer, in press). This latter point is illustrated by the proliferation of vaguely stated citizenship goals, competencies, and attributes dating back to 1918 (Meyer, in press).

More recently, researchers have attempted to focus on these two dilemmas—one of causality and one of definition—in an attempt to make clearer connections and to guide practitioners. We stress, however, that this research is still going on and much has yet to be investigated. This means that even today studies of the many variables and aspects of learning related to citizenship education are long on theory and hypothesis, but short on genuine research information—the kind of precise information we usually associate with the physical sciences.

We think this situation adds to the richness of the dialogue about citizenship education, and because of this, we find it an interesting field to summarize. However, the reader should be aware that many conclusions and recommendations in the field of citizenship education are opinions. As opinions these conclusions and recommendations reflect value biases, no matter how objective or well thought out they may seem.

In this regard, *Words Into Action* is no exception. The booklet summarizes a great deal of theory and opinion. We feel the opinions and theories

are expert, well-founded, and legitimate. But nonetheless they are not facts. They reflect the values of the men and women who have proposed them; and, to some degree, they reflect the values of the men and women who have summarized them for this booklet.

The authors of *Words Into Action* believe that citizenship education should be based on the American tradition of responsible participation. It should focus on the democratic principles of liberty, equality, and rational dissent. It should relate these principles to contemporary social issues and problems. In our opinion, citizenship education should include the acquisition of knowledge about America's unique cultural, legal, and social institutions and traditions. Also, it should foster useful political, legal, and social skills. Finally, we think it should promote a sense of pride in our nation and a commitment to its betterment.

This is our value bias and, because of it, we tend in this booklet to summarize work by authors who speak about citizenship education in this way. We do not exclude any orientation toward citizenship education in our reading because we felt obligated to at least be informed about all points of view on this subject. In our readings, however, we did find that a majority of authors in the field saw citizenship education as we do. Furthermore, most contemporary theory and research related to citizenship education revolve around hypotheses and assumptions about citizenship education that coincide with our opinions. These two facts helped reinforce our value bias about citizenship education, and we admit this bias confident that we are in good company. (In fact Senate Bill 3443 describes citizenship education and its goals much the same as we and those we summarize do.)

Definition and Purpose

By reviewing literally hundreds of definitions and by looking for common elements among them, we arrived (by necessity, somewhat arbitrarily) at the following definition of citizenship education: "Education to help children develop a sense of personal and social responsibility." Even given the large number of opinions about citizenship education and its purposes, most experts and commentators see citizenship education as education for these two kinds of responsibilities.

To be personally responsible means to be accountable for those events or conditions that are under your control and that contribute to your own well-being or betterment. To be socially responsible means to be accountable for those events or conditions that contribute to the well-being or betterment of others. For example, personal responsibility dictates that one care enough about one's health and safety not to smoke in bed. Social responsibility dictates that a casual passerby seeing a house fire (caused, perhaps, by a negligent smoker) cares enough for the health and safety of others to notify the fire company.

The purpose of citizenship education is to provide children with the opportunities and guidance that will help them develop their sense of personal and social responsibility. This purpose is not at all a new one. Since the settling of the United States, schools have always attempted to teach responsibility in

one form or another. It is an accepted goal of public education and it has been named over and over as one of the explicit duties of America's public schools (Blum, 1977; Butts, 1977; Dunfee, 1970; Gross, 1978; Hill, 1978; Peters, 1979; Roselle, 1966).

An Active Approach

Throughout the years, education for personal and social responsibility has shown many faces and has been tried using many approaches. In the most common approach, schools have assumed that offering courses variously called problems of democracy, civics, or American history is a sufficient way to teach children to be responsible. Often schools provide children with additional opportunities and experience through school-related extracurricular activities, such as student government or service organizations like De Molay and the Junior Chamber of Commerce, to supplement their classroom work. This school-centered approach represents the typical pattern today.

This typical school-centered approach to citizenship education is, particularly in its classroom activities, fact oriented and passive. Students memorize names and dates; they learn, usually from books, about the purpose and structure of our political or social institutions. For example, they are asked: What is the reason for the separation of powers included in the United States Constitution? When was the Declaration of Independence signed? When not dealing with facts, this approach stresses theory, asking students, for instance, to compare or contrast types of governments or outline various parliamentary processes.

To be sure, this approach does teach important facts, processes, and theory, all of which are essential to good citizenship. But learning theory, content, or subject matter is only a start.

An alternative approach to citizenship education begins with the premise that future citizens need to know how to apply their knowledge, how to use theory effectively in their political, social, and economic lives. They need to learn the skills, and the attitudes to support those skills, which lead to personal and social responsibility and not simply facts. This means preparing children to take an active part in shaping their society and to want to take such a part. It means making learning relevant. This is an active approach to citizenship education and it marks a departure from, or extension of, typical citizenship education (American Political Science Association Committee on Precollegiate Education, 1971; Council of Chief State School Officers, 1976; Mehlinger, 1978).

The active approach is based on learning theory and research that grew out of the education reform movements of the 1960s and 1970s and that strongly suggested that knowledge of facts and theories must be supplemented by activities in which the facts and theories are used and applied. That is, students need to make their own discoveries, in their own ways, and at their own speed; facts and theories must take on personal meaning through some kind of personal experience. By combining the active (doing) with the passive (thinking about), citizenship education will make sense to children, motivate them to participate in society, and most importantly, influence their later

citizenship behavior as adults (Fenton, 1966; Greenstein, 1969; Jennings & Niemi, 1974; Sullivan et al., 1979). Let us see how this translates into practice.

More than anything, the active approach requires us to think differently about the aims of citizenship education. Knowledge and skills are no longer taught solely to help students pass a test or solve a hypothetical problem. Instead, they become the underpinnings which enable the learners, first as students and later as citizens, to become contributing participants to their world, be it school, community, or beyond. Both knowledge and skills, in this context, must be useful for effective participation in everyday activities. This means that children's everyday activities, both in and out of school, are the point of departure for learning as well as an effective way to learn. Such learning remains with the children long after they've left school (Cherryholms, 1979; Chiarelott, 1978; Duckett, 1978; Torney & Tesconi, 1977).

As one illustration of this approach, children often have units or lessons in school in which they learn how to read the newspaper. Such lessons can help children to use knowledge to build life-long skills for effective participation. Newspapers offer a great many facts which can simply be memorized or which can be used to help children analyze, form opinions about, discuss, and communicate points of view. Information that is offered on television can serve a similar purpose (Cirino, 1977). The key for an active approach is active involvement. To summarize, children learn skills best by experimenting with and practicing them, by using rather than by learning about using them.

This focus on active involvement extends to how the active approach requires us to view attitudes. Instead of trying to teach children the "right" attitudes, we should help children develop positive attitudes about themselves and others by capitalizing on their everyday activities. We should help children feel that they are important both in and out of school. We should help them feel that their opinions count and that they can help decide how things should be (Almond & Verba, 1963; Hertz-Lazarowitz & Sharan, 1979).

Again, use of the newspaper can help. Newspaper stories, editorials, and letters to the editor are excellent vehicles for frank, non-threatening discussions about feelings or attitudes. They can help children clarify values, make judgments, or choose alternatives. As with skills, active involvement, experimentation, and practice are the keys.

The active approach to citizenship education requires that we also take a new look at the relationship between sets of skills and school courses. Instead of confining citizenship education to a single subject, like social studies, the skills we associate with citizenship can be taught in many subjects and extracurricular activities. We can help children see that reading and arithmetic skills are useful for effective citizenship. We can also help them by pointing out the connection between their good sportsmanship and their good citizenship. This point of view carries us beyond the school and into cooperative ventures of the family and community organizations (Fenton, 1977; Sexton, 1967; Slaughter, 1977).

It is worth stressing at this point that the home and community play an important part in children's citizenship education. They constitute what has been called a "societal curriculum" and children often learn more effectively

from family, friends, and media than from school. Some think that the informal education from this societal curriculum outside the school (including magazines, newspapers, conversations, movies, clubs, friends, television, and the like) at times even cancels out much of what is taught in school. In any event, most agree that the societal curriculum is a potent educational force that must be studied and used positively, just as the school curriculum must be studied and used positively (Cortes, 1979; Giroux, 1978; Overly, 1970; Wyner, 1978).

Benefiting From the Active Approach

It is well documented that students usually prefer active learning which is not limited to the school or classroom. They find it stimulating and relevant; they prefer it to silent fact learning; and significantly, students seem to learn more from the active approach (Duckett, 1979; Jones, 1975; Shive & Rogus, 1979).

Furthermore, many experts argue that the active approach to education for social and personal responsibility also carries with it a high payoff for both the society and the individual that goes beyond increased learning. They contend that when children are denied the opportunity to develop and practice responsibility, they feel unimportant, useless, and alien to their society. Such feelings are frequently expressed as violence, vandalism, and drug abuse as well as cynicism and apathy (Hearing, 1978; National Association for Educational Progress, 1978; U.S. Commission on Civil Rights, 1971).

There is ample evidence that participation and active involvement work. For example, one program which has had great success in urban areas in California calls upon students to take part in a wide variety of decision-making activities from which they have been traditionally excluded: e.g., writing codes of student rights and responsibilities, selecting textbooks, and even helping select the school principal. Special leadership training is provided for which students receive academic credit. This project is having a positive effect on both the students and the school community. Students learn to become responsible decision makers. They enhance their self-esteem, participate enthusiastically, and often initiate constructive activity beyond that associated with the project, e.g., improvements to the school building and grounds, community work with the elderly (Citizens Policy Center, n.d.; Hearing, 1978).

In another program chronically truant disruptive children sign contracts agreeing to devote two hours of their out-of-school time to study, to attend school regularly, and to cooperate with teachers. The children's parents and teachers in turn agree to help the children fulfill their contracts. In most cases the students in this program have risen to new responsibilities. For instance, schools participating in this program report higher attendance; higher achievement; fewer discipline problems; and better rapport among students, teachers, parents, and community members. Again, the enthusiasm and self-respect generated in this program have gone beyond the school as many students become responsible, self-disciplined, and politically active community members (Banks & Levine, 1977; Cole, 1977; McCarther, 1978; Vandalism, 1979).

These are only two of many projects that demonstrate the benefits that can be derived from active student involvement in responsible activities. Young people learn that adults appreciate and reward responsible behavior. Because of this, they begin to seek new opportunities to participate, a counterforce to the mystique of antisocial behavior or dropping-out. Finally, and perhaps most importantly, youngsters learn a critical lesson: good citizenship includes doing something and contributing to our way of life—not just enjoying the benefits (Center for New Schools, 1972; Marvin, 1976; National Commission on Resources for Youth, 1974).

II. Influencing Citizenship Education

We now turn our discussion to three general influences that affect children's citizenship education: role models—people that children imitate; institutional environments—children's physical, social, and emotional surroundings; and individual development—the way children grow and mature. As was stated earlier, one or more of these three influences was the focus of most of the research literature we examined. Furthermore, the researchers suggested that by making changes in these three influences we could enhance children's citizenship education. Just how these three factors influence a child's citizenship education is discussed in the pages that follow.

Role Models*

More has been written about role models than has been written about the other two influences. Because of this we know more about them and their influence. Role models are people children admire enough to imitate. Parents, teachers, friends, television stars, and sports figures can all be role models. In many cases, children, particularly young children, assume that whatever the models do or say is true, right, normal, and desirable (Bandura, 1969; Greenstein, 1969; Jaros, 1973; Slaughter, 1977).

Research indicates that role models can influence children in both intentional and unintentional ways. For example, some role models, such as teachers and parents, often intentionally give children information (or their interpretation of it) about government, politics, and the law. Likewise, role models convey information about other groups by recounting historical accounts or singling out ethnic characteristics. These are instances of the intentional influence of a role model, and this kind of influence is fairly obvious (Durio, 1976; Hess & Torney, 1967; Kahn, 1979).

A role model's unintentional influence is more subtle and more difficult to see. One important way role models unintentionally influence children is through behavior. A role model's behavior is often imitated outright by children, who give little thought to reasons or motives for the behavior. Children often copy the way role models make a decision (either rushed through or thought out); the way role models express an interpretation or judgment; the way models adopt a political affiliation. Children copy a role model's degree of political participation and compliance or noncompliance with the law. Most often children imitate how role models treat other people. Role models are rarely aware that children watch their actions so closely or imitate them so readily. They do not realize their influence. Thus, to a large extent, the messages children receive by watching role models are unintentional (Gillespie & Lazarus, 1979; Greenstein, 1969; Jaros, 1973). This kind of unintentional influence helps explain, for example, why the children of child abusers become

*For an excellent discussion of role models and their influence on children, we recommend Chapter 2, "The Origins of Behavior," in *Social Learning Theory* by Albert Bandura (Prentice-Hall, 1977).

child abusers themselves or why the children of alcoholics tend to become alcoholics (James, 1975; Segell, 1979).

In addition to behavior, children tend to mimic a role model's attitudes, opinions, and values, even when unstated. (There is evidence, for example, that children adopt unstated prejudices as easily as they adopt stated ones.) For instance, several case studies have shown that white suburban middle-class children enrolled in predominantly black urban schools and reflecting seemingly unstated parental attitudes become anxious and suspicious of their black classmates. Other studies point that black children in predominantly white settings often exhibit their parents' fear and suspicion of whites. In other cases, black children seem to adopt their white teachers' unspoken attitudes toward black scholastic abilities and become underachievers (Banks, McQuater, & Hubbard, 1978; Bennett, 1979; Lang, 1969; Weinberg, 1977). So children often learn from a role model in their family, school, and peer groups. They learn by imitating, listening, absorbing—whether the role models expect them to or not. But who are the important role models, and how do they exert influence?

For young children (up to about 7 or 8 years old), parents and older family members are usually the most influential models (Greenstein, 1969; Jaros, 1973). Their behavior, social participation, and decision-making processes are copied; their opinions are taken as facts; their attitudes are accepted without question. Once children become accustomed to school (between 7 and 10), however, teachers enter the scene as role models (Jennings & Niemi, 1974; Massialas, 1978). While teachers are expected to provide factual information in the classroom, their behavior, method of presenting information (dogmatically, tentatively), and method of making decisions (democratically, autocratically) all influence the child. These are unintentional influences that teachers exert as role models.

As children grow into adolescence, friends and mass media, (especially television) become more influential. The influence of peers on preteens and teenagers is well documented and well known. Children of this age want to dress like their friends; they want to fix their hair like their friends. They want to see the same movies, go to the same parties, and support the same causes. It is almost a cliche to say that teenage behavior is conforming behavior—even when it is nonconforming.

The influence that friends exert as role models is largely intentional. But clearly, it is a small step from copying a way of talking, for example, to copying vocabulary and the attitudes that underlie the vocabulary. So peers, like parents and teachers, can exert both intentional and unintentional influence when they are role models (Bettelheim, 1969; Bronfenbrenner, 1970; Epstein, 1978; Strom, 1979).

Likewise, the media's effect can be obvious (like a political campaign announcement or commentary on a social issue), or it can be hidden (like the legal message implied in a police show or the cultural message implied in a situation comedy). Usually children are most attentive to those media messages that reinforce the behavior and attitudes they have already adopted; they tend to tune out most media messages that do not reflect their estab-

lished beliefs (Cirino, 1977; Dawson & Prewitt, 1969; Klapper, 1960; Lewellen, 1976; Zellers, 1979).

In some cases points of view and behavior can be changed because of association with certain friends (models) or exposure to the media. This may occur in two ways. First, new options that a person never considered are presented in a desirable way, like a "pitch" from a follower of an Eastern religious order that promises self-fulfillment or a program advertising the benefits of a political party. Second, new information may cause a person to reconsider his or her attitudes and actions and eventually change them. An obvious example of the latter was the widespread attitudinal change toward the president and the presidency among youngsters and adults as a result of the media's coverage of Watergate and the war in Vietnam (Bailey, 1975; Bailey, 1976; Massialas, 1978).

Recommendations

There is a great deal of agreement that role models can enrich citizenship education, largely because they are so readily accepted by the child. It is important where possible to secure the willingness of role models to set a good example. It is also important to use their influence constructively. Specific recommendations summarized from the research and theory are as follows:

- Role models should provide information accurately and clearly. Whenever possible they should reveal the source of what they say (e.g., "in a recent court decision" or "according to *The New York Times*"). If a personal opinion is expressed, it should be identified as an opinion ("In my opinion . . . ."). Children must learn that there is a difference between fact and opinion and that there is more than one way of looking at something. Role models should help children validate information by recommending ways and places to find reliable sources. In this way role models may motivate children to seek other opinions, compare them, and evaluate the opinions in order to arrive at a personal point of view. Lastly, role models should let children know they are willing to explore various (and opposing) points of view.
- Role models should avoid oversimplifying or overcomplicating information. Only the relevant parts of any idea should be discussed in a way that has meaning for the child. If the child is capable of taking in more, a role model should take time to explain the complexity, for the child must come to realize that the knowledge, skills, and attitudes associated with personal and social responsibility are not simple and that understanding and using them can be difficult.
- Role models should be aware that actions do, indeed, speak louder than words. Children tend to do as adults do rather than as adults say. Role models should be particularly aware of how they intentionally and unintentionally influence attitudes. The child is likely to copy the role model's way of looking at things, be it critical, skeptical, or impulsive.
- Role models should explain their actions and attitudes to help children understand their basis. By talking about the motives behind beliefs or behavior, role models can help children realize that attitudes and actions can be examined and that talking about them is part of the analysis.

Finally, such analysis will demonstrate that it is important to sometimes analyze and evaluate one's own beliefs and actions, an attitude children will likely emulate.

- Role models should provide children with the opportunity to develop their own personality. Children should be taught not to adopt attitudes and values without question. Role models should let children know that it is important for them to form their own opinions, and that their thoughts and beliefs are of worth. In short, role models should help them to discover personal and social responsibility without preaching or dogmatic teaching.

Institutional Environments*

We turn now to an area that has recently received much attention in the literature about citizenship education: institutional environments. The phrase was first coined by sociologists who used the word "institution" to describe an organized, structured group like a family, school, or social club. They used the word "environment" to describe a group's physical surroundings; their social and political structure, and the traditions and values shared and expressed by group members. When we talk about the influence of institutional environments on children, we are referring to the way children alter their behavior, their values, their attitudes, or their general personality as a consequence of belonging to various groups.

When children become part of an institution—members of a structured group—they immediately come under that institution's influence. Most structured groups operate according to a system of rules which define acceptable and unacceptable behavior. The first thing children must learn then is this system of rules. In addition, institutions typically have a system by which group decisions are reached and carried out. Children must learn this system also. Frequently, members of institutions subscribe to a system of commonly-held values or beliefs, and this is still another system which children must learn as they become members of an institution (Dreeben, 1970; Durio, 1976; Jennings & Niemi, 1974; McPartland & McDill, 1974).

Schools are a common illustration. Schools have systems of rules which very explicitly tell children what they can and cannot do (e.g., come to school on time; do not run in hallways; eat lunch at a certain time). Also, there are explicit systems for reaching and carrying out decisions in schools (for the most part, what teachers say goes). Finally, most schools are characterized by systems of values which children are expected to adopt (e.g., neat work is good work; learning is important).

Children can learn the various systems of an instititional environment in ways that are both obvious and hidden. For example, they often accept and adopt rules and values that are taught there (e.g., in school). In a less obvious

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*For an excellent discussion of institutional environments and the influence exerted on children by various social groups, we recommend Chapter 4, "Explaining the Political Behavior of Individuals: Group or Social Factors" in *Political Behavior: Choices and Perspectives* by Dean Jaros and Lawrence V. Grant (St. Martin's Press, 1974).

way, they learn by watching and imitating the actions and attitudes of those in institutional authority (e.g., principals), those they admire (e.g., teachers), or others like themselves. Children experiment as they watch others and imitate what they see, testing to find out how people are rewarded in an institution. By checking who gets the most attention or benefit in the institution and by learning what actions or attitudes are most acceptable and why, they learn the rewards of the institution and begin to understand what is correct, responsible behavior for that setting (Sanders, 1977; Sexton, 1967; Torney, 1977).

Experts feel that four types of institutions—family, school, peer groups (e.g., groups of friends), and community social or service groups (e.g., Boy Scouts, Campfire Girls, YMHA, church choir), are the most influential ones in children's lives. To begin with, children spend most of their time in these institutions. Also, among these institutions there are a large number of role models for children to imitate. Furthermore, the specific purpose of two of these institutions, family and school, is to mold children's behavior, thoughts, and beliefs, while preparing them for adult life. The other two, peer and community groups, have added influence because children typically join them voluntarily thereby expressing a disposition to adapt to institutional demands (Bandura, 1969; Jennings & Niemi, 1974; Torney & Tesconi, 1977).

Most research and theory about family, school, community, and peer institutional environments talk of three influences related to citizenship education. These influences are the way the institution mirrors the real world, the way its power structure operates, and the values and attitudes its members display.

It is common to believe that when children adjust to the environments of family, school, community, and peer groups, they are preparing themselves for the real world, and gaining knowledge and skills useful for later effective, responsible citizenship. The assumption is that the environments fairly reflect the outside world.

However, an institution can be out of step with the larger society. For instance, it may not be providing learning experiences useful for everyday life. Statistics reveal that many adults do not vote because they never learned how to or why they should. Furthermore, many who do vote often do so in an unknowing, haphazard, or naive fashion. This kind of civic apathy or ignorance is often laid at the door of an institutional environment (like the school or family) which does not teach knowledge, skills, and attitudes which will help children understand their world and participate effectively in it (Hess & Torney, 1967; Jaros, 1973; Sullivan et al., 1979).

Another way institutions are often out of step is in their description of society. One example is when an institution gives children the impression that there is nothing wrong with America; that it is a place where hard work is always rewarded and injustice always punished. Schools frequently have been singled out as being guilty of this kind of misrepresentation. On the other hand, there are institutions which would lead children to believe that there can be no justice or reward in America without violent confrontation. This kind of misrepresentation is characteristic of many radical or paramilitary groups

(American Political Science Association, 1971; Massialas, 1978; Miel & Kiester, 1973; Torney & Tesconi, 1977).

In both cases, failing to provide useful instruction and misrepresenting society, the institutional environments fail to mirror the real world. Moreover, they give children misleading expectations. In one instance, children are led to believe that they have adequate preparation; in the other, they are led to believe that the world is different than it really is. There is some evidence that this kind of misrepresentation (by home, school or community institutions) has consequences beyond simple apathy, ignorance, or a lack of citizenship skills. Often, as children realize their preparation is inadequate or irrelevant, they turn against the institutions that have been misleading them. They become isolated or antisocial. Studies indicate that this trend intensifies as children age, for example, cynicism toward our society and political system increases as children spend more time in schools (Greenstein, 1969; Lesser, 1978; McPartland & McDill, 1976; Merelman, 1971; Point of No Return, 1979).

Many authors, in describing this kind of irrelevant, inadequate, and misleading preparation, focus on the operation of institutional power structures. To these authors the typical institutional power structure crystallizes the failure of most American institutions to provide children with the knowledge, skills, and attitudes that will help them become personally and socially responsible (Hunkins, 1976; Sturgess, 1979).

In an institution, power structure means more than simply who is in charge. It also refers to how decisions and rules are made and enforced, how conflicts are resolved, who participates in making rules and decisions and settling conflicts, how attitudes and opinions are formed and expressed, and how moral and ethical standards are created and passed on.

One obvious influence exerted by an institution's power structure is the exercise of power itself. Children discover how (or in what different ways) decisions or rules are made and upheld in an institution, and they use this model of power as a frame of reference for their attitudes toward other power structures in other institutions. For example, a child raised in an authoritarian family structure learns how to operate within that kind of structure, but that same child may be at sea in a different kind of power structure—one that is more democratic, for instance—and must learn how to act in it. Simple exposure to such alternatives helps children learn, and be comfortable with, a variety of ways to resolve conflicts, reach decisions, or form standards (Durio, 1976; Grambs, Carr, & Fitch, 1970; Hess & Torney, 1967; Kane, 1970).

Further, experts link the operation of institutional power structures to the development of children's decision-making skills (lifelong skills of especial importance to citizenship). These skills rest on practice; children develop them by using them often and systematically to deal with many different dilemmas. There is much agreement that if they are allowed (or better, encouraged) to experiment with and practice their abilities to reason, weigh alternatives, evaluate, and so on, children will, with guidance, learn to be competent decision makers. If not, they may tend to be indecisive, jump to conclusions, or to choose haphazardly. The institutional power structure can offer or with-

hold such practice (McPartland, McDill, Lacey, Harris, & Novey, 1971; Tapp & Kohlberg, 1977).

Theorists also suggest that children's attitudes toward power are affected by their experiences with the power structures of family, school, community, or peer group organizations. If they are involved in the operation of the power structure and in making decisions, and if they are given opportunities to be responsible for their decisions, their view of power and of themselves is positive. They may begin to understand how to exercise power responsibly and that rules are necessary to make social interaction constructive. They may also begin to see that they have control over their own lives, and this understanding and self-esteem encourage them to act responsibly. Conversely, it is suggested that if children are continually excluded from the power structure, they view power as repressive, something to be feared and fought (Almond & Verba, 1963; Hess & Torney, 1967; Jaros, 1973; Renshon, 1975).

Beyond influencing children's attitudes toward power and toward themselves, institutions can influence other attitudes and values. Here we are referring to additional institutional influences that relate to the view of the world and to the values and attitudes advocated (openly or subtly) by institutional members (Association of American Publishers, n.d.; Jaros, 1973).

All institutions foster attitudes or values and these attitudes and values are an important influence. In many cases, these values and attitudes are taught. In schools, textbooks and teachers frequently teach attitudes and values, for example, cooperation and self-control. Many community service groups also teach values, beliefs, and attitudes. Even among informal groups of friends, certain values, such as loyalty and sacrifice, are mutually and overtly taught and learned.

Children tend to adopt institutional attitudes which are taught because they see them as official policy, as facts, or as the truth, since they may be unaware of alternatives (Greenstein, 1969; Jennings & Niemi, 1974; Newman, 1973).

Children also tend to adopt them because, along with rules for behavior (which may, themselves, be values), they outline what is or is not rewarded in an institution. Parents who say they will pay for their children's college tuition but not for their trip to Fort Lauderdale are both advocating and rewarding an institutional value (Bandura, 1969).

Many institutional values, however, are communicated obliquely as hidden messages. The influence of these hidden value messages, while oblique, is very powerful, and many hidden value messages permeate institutional environments. Consider, for example, the value message presented by the dress rules of an elementary school which represents the "back-to-basics" alternative in its district. Before students are accepted by this school, their parents must agree in writing that they will not send their children to school wearing jeans or sneakers. The reasoning behind this rule is that jeans and sneakers are clothes associated with play. The children, however, do not go to this school to play; they go to learn. Hence, they should wear clothes that present a business-like appearance.

What hidden value messages do rules such as this convey? One is that there is a distinction between having a good time (playing) and learning (going to school). Another is that clothes illustrate whether the wearer is serious (ready to play or ready to learn). Still another is that people can be characterized by the way they look. There are other hidden messages to be found in this example, and the few chosen simply illustrate the power of this kind of influence.

We can see further instances. To keep order, a teacher encourages children to raise their hands and wait their turns; a hidden message to them may be that passivity is correct and valued behavior. A mother or father is too busy to vote on election day; the hidden message to the children is that participation in elections is not important. A father repeats an ethnic joke; the hidden message is that some ethnic groups are less valued than others.

The important thing to remember about hidden messages of this kind is that because they are subtle, unintentional, and almost unconscious, they are usually adopted without thought or question. Many of children's values, attitudes, beliefs, and prejudices are adopted in just this way—as a by-product of the hundreds and hundreds of hidden messages they unthinkingly absorb in an institutional environment (Giroux, 1978; Jaros, 1973; Sanders, 1977; Sturgess, 1971).

Recommendations

Authors writing about institutional environments agree that if we are to prepare children to be personally and socially responsible citizens, we have no choice but to provide institutional environments that allow them to learn and assume that responsibility. A great deal of theory and research has dealt with the positive effects that democratic institutions have on children. Democratic institutions are ones in which all members have a voice in formulating and carrying out decisions. They are institutions where power and authority are the result of consensus. In democratic institutions obedience and commitment to rules and decisions are the result of a cooperative spirit and a sense of having contributed. Members of democratic institutions are well-informed, knowledgeable, and capable of assuming responsibility. In short, democratic institutions are ones in which all members are effective participants (Grambs et al., 1970; Jennings & Niemi, 1974; Simpson, 1971; Tapp, 1976).

Children who have experiences in an institution that is democratic are more likely to be informed about how decisions are reached and about alternative ways to make decisions. They are also more likely to be positively motivated to participate in making decisions. This is because in such an institution children share the responsibility for and gain experience in making decisions, rules, and standards. They learn the value and skills of weighing alternative opinions, negotiating, and dissenting. Their participation in institutional affairs is encouraged. As one example, in some student-government courts the students act as the prosecutors, defense attorneys, judges, and jurors, as well as the defendants. Another example is the Boy Scouts or Girl Scouts where youngsters are encouraged to set their own agendas and goals and work toward them with adult guidance but without adult control (Bank Street Col-

lege of Education, 1979; Ehman, 1969; Jaros, 1973; McPartland et al., 1971; Monroe, 1972).

Moreover, a democratic power structure seems to foster self-confidence. Children see that their actions matter, that their opinions count, and that they really have an effect on the formulation of decisions and rules. In short, they learn to be effective in their world—and to enjoy it (Almond & Verba, 1963; Duckett, 1978; Hertz-Lazarowitz & Sharan, 1979).

The greatest agreement we found among experts had to do with the benefit of a democratic institutional environment to children's citizenship education. Almost every author recommended the creation of a democratic institutional environment in families, in schools, and in community groups. Specific recommendations for doing this can be summarized as follows:

- Institutions should attempt to create an open environment in which children are allowed and even encouraged to participate in making decisions. Likewise, children should be permitted to arrive at their own values and form their own attitudes. Dissent should be tolerated and children should be encouraged to voice their own opinions as well as develop their own tolerance for others' points of view. As with any learning experience, the children's age and level of maturity should be considered as well as their ability to take part in a democratic participatory environment. They must be able to recognize the benefits of such an open atmosphere and be ready to handle the responsibilities of making decisions and expressing opinions. Children can best benefit from a democratic institutional environment if they engage in participatory activities that match their level of development and hold meaning for them.
- Institutions should attempt to create an environment that prepares children for the real world. Children should be taught knowledge and skills that they can use for present and future participation. They should be helped to develop values and attitudes that will enable them to be productive and effective. However, if the institutional environment is to reflect the real world, consideration should be given to both the nature of the real world and the purpose of citizenship education. If children are to assume a sense of responsibility about the common welfare, they must know that the world is sometimes undemocratic and unfair. People break laws and profit from it. Prejudice exists and discriminates against many. An institution should reveal the bad as well as the good, not only to be honest with children but to help them recognize areas that need change. It is, therefore, an institution's responsibility to make children aware of the full range of social and political activity (good and bad) and, if possible, provide them with carefully controlled experiences in exploitative political manipulation or social injustice as well as positive exercises in constructive political or social processes.
- Institutions should attempt to create an environment that is relatively free of negative hidden messages that may impact children's values and attitudes. Children should be made aware of the existence of hidden messages and their power. They should also be taught to recognize these messages and be encouraged to discuss them openly and honestly. (It

should be noted that many of the recommendations proposed for the creation of a democratic institutional environment involve subjecting children to many hidden value messages. Not one author who advocated creating such an environment felt that this was inconsistent. In fact, few even addressed the issue. We presume that this is because most would see the hidden messages in a democratic institution as positive ones.)

Individual Development

The last area of influence we will discuss is individual development. By individual development we mean the process by which humans grow and mature physically, mentally, and emotionally. Research and theory in individual development date back more than seventy-five years; almost from the start, investigators in this area have linked children's citizenship to their mental, physical, and emotional growth. At the base of most theories about individual development there is a set of common assumptions about the growth process. These assumptions state that as children get older and mature physically, they also mature emotionally and mentally. This maturity involves the ability to think and reason logically and to interact with others comfortably and appropriately. But something happens besides just getting older to cause the changes in these abilities. As children experience more, some fundamental aspects of their thinking processes change to account for new and different kinds of information. This brings about changes in the ways children understand things and in their behavior.

Experts feel that individual development plays a key part in citizenship education because it influences how children take in, understand, and think about information. It also influences how children solve problems, arrive at conclusions, make decisions, and coordinate their thoughts and actions. Finally, individual development influences how children view the world and the people in it. Thus, developmental theorists maintain that individual development should be considered when teaching personal and social responsibility. Some also suggest that developmental changes and the influences they exert should be a key guide to citizenship education (Durio, 1976; Gallatin & Adelson, 1977; Merelman, 1971; Nucci, 1979; Sullivan et al., 1979; Torney, 1979).

Theorists discuss four kinds of individual development:

- *psychomotor*, or the development of physical capabilities;
- *cognitive*, or the development of the ability to think, reason, and solve problems;
- *moral/ethical*, or the development of the ability to come to consistent, well thought out moral and ethical conclusions and to live according to a set of consistent moral standards;
- *social*, or the development of the ability to adapt to a variety of social situations and to function appropriately in them.

Changes occur in these four areas of development throughout life, but they change most dramatically during childhood and adolescence. Experts agree that experiences are the catalyst in this process of change; that is, as children do different things, or learn about different things, their individual

development is affected. Some theorists suggest that in certain areas—notably psychomotor and cognitive—individual development occurs with a great deal of predictability and regularity. Many also contend that certain experiences, or lack of experiences, can arrest or retard development (Hurlock, 1964; Inhelder, Sinclair, & Bovet, 1974; Kohlberg, 1969; Piaget, 1965; Selman, 1975).

Even though the four areas of individual development are interwoven, each influencing the other, we will describe each separately. We think this will make individual development easier to understand.

Psychomotor*

Psychomotor development is easy to observe and follow in children. Because of this, a great deal of research has been done in this area, particularly with regard to the influences that physical development exerts on behaviors and attitudes. As an influence on children's citizenship education, psychomotor development seems to be a rich field which needs to be more thoroughly investigated. Presently, research and theory in this area of development (as it relates to citizenship education) center around effects of hostility, tension, poor self-image and feelings of exclusion. These feelings are typically a normal consequence of the physical changes children experience in getting older, and they are particularly obvious in preadolescence and adolescence. Because they are largely physical in origin, they tend to go away or get channeled into constructive activity. However, if the physical cause of these feelings persists or is especially traumatic, children may carry these negative feelings of social isolation into adulthood. For example, many point out that American society has, in many instances, created an environment conducive to exclusion and apathy among the physically and mentally disabled. Studies suggest that because our society has largely ignored their special needs, these individuals do not, and sometimes cannot, participate. This lack of participation often stems not only from the lack of special facilities, but also from attitudes of hostility, apathy, and powerlessness which persist among many handicapped persons (Hurlock, 1964; James, 1975; Leyser, 1979).

It has also been suggested that an analogous situation exists for many of America's racial and ethnic minorities. Focusing on the notion of exclusion and certainly not on any suggestion that being a member of a racial or ethnic minority represents some kind of disability, some posit that American society's attitudes toward racial and cultural differences have created a social environment of exclusion and powerlessness for some minorities. This environment has, in turn, caused apathy, hostility, and poor self-image in the children of these minorities. These children then carry these attitudes, and the behaviors associated with them, into adulthood, becoming antisocial and nonparticipatory (Ballesteros, 1973; Banks, 1972; Gay, 1973; Glazer & Moynihan, 1970; Smith, 1977; Torney & Tesconi, 1977).

*For an excellent easy to read discussion of psychomotor development and its influence on children's behavior, attitudes, and later life we recommend, Chapters 5 and 6 of *Child Development* by Elizabeth B. Hurlock (McGraw-Hill, 1978).

Cognitive*

With regard to cognitive development, there have been significant findings, some of which we have touched on. A major conclusion is that as children grow older not only does their capacity to acquire information increase, but so does their ability to understand complex information, use it constructively, and solve problems efficiently. There is a connection between a child's age and both the kind of information he or she can understand and the way he or she makes sense out of it. In short, children grow from an ability to deal with only simple, concrete understandings to the ability to deal with abstract ones. This means not only that 9-year-old children will have a much shorter attention span than do 15-year-olds, but that older children will retain more information than younger children, and they will be able to use that information to solve problems that the 9-year-olds cannot. This somewhat obvious finding is very important because it strongly suggests that children's understanding is linked to the way information is presented. If information is too complex for a child's level of cognitive development, it will not be understood. Children often deal with difficult new information by making it somehow fit into their way of thinking. If confronted with information that is too abstract or that requires overly complex understanding, younger children will simplify things by altering or distorting the information until it makes sense. They do this because the information is presented in a way that is too complex for their level of development. So, because 9-year-olds, for example, have a more limited ability to understand complexity than do 15-year-olds, they must be given information in a very concrete way.

As we said earlier, the most effective way for children of any age to acquire and to make sense of information is through personal experience. This is particularly true when we consider the development of children's thinking abilities. Simply providing more information is not likely to accelerate cognitive growth. Also, there is no guarantee that it will help them understand more. Rather, cognitive growth or increased understanding is likely to occur when children mentally practice manipulating information; that is, when they try to order new information to make it consistent with what they already know, comparing and contrasting the old and new. In doing this, children eventually arrive at a more sophisticated way of ordering information—a higher level of cognitive understanding. For a 9-year-old child this manipulation might be grouping and sorting cards with states' names on them according to their geographical region, then according to the number of their electoral votes, and so on. For 15-year-old children it might be describing alternative consequences for a state when a Republican or a Democrat becomes president (Bailey, 1976; Merelman, 1971; Metz, 1978; Piaget, 1965; Pulaski, 1971; Torney, 1979).

*For an excellent easy to read discussion of cognitive development, we recommend *Understanding Piaget* by Mary Ann Spencer Pulaski (Harper and Row, 1971).

Moral/Ethical*

Many scholars have investigated the development of children's ability to come to reasoned moral/ethical conclusions. From these theories we can highlight key ideas which relate to citizenship education.

To begin with, many believe that moral/ethical development reflects, in part, the skill of perspective taking, or seeing things from another's point of view. This suggests that it is, to some degree, linked to the capacity to think and reason abstractly. In addition, moral/ethical development may follow a sequence in which persons pass from a level of making simplistic moral choices based on fear, to a level where they make reasoned moral choices based on abstract principles of justice and altruism. It has been suggested that this sequence is age-related. However, children do not progress through this sequence automatically as they grow into adulthood. Some never pass beyond the early levels of simplistic moral reasoning.

Because moral/ethical development is linked so closely to the development of thinking, reasoning, and solving problems, many characteristics of cognitive development apply equally. For instance, there is probably a connection between a child's age and his or her capacity for moral/ethical reasoning. The older child is more likely to be able to deal with abstract moral/ethical dilemmas. But as was pointed out, age alone is no guarantee of moral/ethical level. As was the case in cognitive development, the development of moral/ethical reasoning is more than a process of acquiring information; it is a process of learning new ways to deal with that information. For example, children may learn at a relatively early age that stealing is wrong. Their understanding of why it is wrong, however, changes as they develop. In the earliest stage of his or her moral development, a child may say that it is wrong to steal because you might get punished if you do. In a somewhat higher stage, the child's reason for not stealing may be that you shouldn't steal because people won't like you if you do. And in an even higher developmental stage the reason given might be that stealing is wrong because it's against the law.

Again, as with cognitive development, children must be given moral/ethical information appropriate to their level of development. If this does not happen, they may alter or distort the information in an attempt to understand it. Likewise, if children are not sufficiently mature to deal with complex moral/ethical dilemmas, they may oversimplify them.

Research is also being conducted to determine the relationship of moral/ethical development to actual behavior. Investigators argue that the way a person acts should be the focus of examination, not what he or she says. They point out that many of us give well-reasoned answers to hypothetical moral/ethical questions, yet we do not always act in an ethical way in real life. This consideration makes the progress of children's moral/ethical development more difficult to predict, monitor, and assess than their psychomotor or cognitive development.

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*For an excellent easy-to-read discussion of moral/ethical development, we recommend "Moral Thinking: Can It Be Taught?" by Howard Muson. This article appeared in the February, 1979 issue of *Psychology Today*.

Moreover, moral/ethical development involves more than a capacity for intellectualization and abstract thinking. Also involved are the children's feelings about others and about themselves. Because of this, many believe that positive personal experiences, ones that make children feel good about themselves and others, are key to moral/ethical development. Other factors of general personality development, such as identity crisis resolution or growth of the superego, also seem to play an important part (Erikson, 1968; Furth, Baur, & Smith, 1976; Gallatin & Adelson, 1970; Jordan & Waite, 1979; Levine & Tapp, 1977; Muson, 1979; Superka, 1976; Torney, 1979).

Social*

The development of children's ability to understand and adapt to different situations and people has been examined in a number of ways. Nearly all studies agree that social development is based on the expansion of a child's view of the world. As a result, to most experts, social development is linked closely with children's experiences with others: with the nature of these experiences and with the way the child perceives and understands these experiences.

The expansion of a child's world does not result from simply having more facts. Rather, it reflects, more than anything else, a child's increasing ability to take another's perspective, see the world and people from other viewpoints, predict how others might act, and plan actions accordingly. Because of this, social development is akin to both cognitive and moral/ethical development. As is the case with cognitive and moral/ethical development, children tend to simplify complexity that they do not readily understand. In this instance complex social situations are simplified to fit their social world. Consequently, younger children are particularly apt to adopt stereotypes (overly simplified conceptions) or to blame themselves when social relations break down (as in divorce).

Social development probably occurs according to a sequential pattern which, again, is somewhat related to age. All young children begin with an egocentric view of the world, believing that they are the center of all social activity and interest. As they grow, they develop social understandings and behaviors that enable them to recognize the importance of others and to function in different social settings—family, school, peer groups, clubs, and so on. Thus, as children get older, they become more socially sophisticated, and this is probably the result of both age-related experience and age-related cognitive growth. Some believe that social development is associated with a child's ability to talk. To them, increasingly sophisticated communication with others leads children to increasingly sophisticated social awareness and sensitivity. In any event, it seems fairly clear that social development requires real social experiences with others, not ones that are simulated or merely observed.

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*For an excellent easy-to-read discussion of social development, we recommend "A Developmental Approach to Interpersonal and Moral Awareness in Young Children" by Robert Selman in *Values Education* edited by Meyer, Burnham, and Cholvat (Wilfrid Laurier University Press, 1975).

Because it is linked to interpersonal contact, social development, like moral/ethical development, involves more than thinking; it involves feelings about oneself and about others. This means that it is related to the development of a child's self-concept and personality. In a sense, social development can be seen as a process of establishing and defining one's place in a world of other people, periodically reevaluating that place, and adapting oneself to new roles and new people (Durio, 1976; Erikson, 1968; Gallatin & Adelson, 1970; Leyser, 1979; Nucci, 1979; Raph, 1978; Remy, 1976; Schwartz, 1975; Selman, 1975; Torney, 1979).

Recommendations

As we pointed out above, experts have provided strong evidence linking the influences of individual psychomotor, cognitive, moral/ethical, and social development to citizenship education. Furthermore, there is agreement that by structuring citizenship education to account for the many aspects of individual development, we can strengthen and extend the effect of that education. Recommendations for doing this can be summarized as follows:

- Activities related to citizenship education should reflect children's levels of cognitive, moral, and social development: that is, the level of instruction should be neither too complex nor too simplistic. The material and activities should be challenging and encourage manipulation and rethinking, but they should not continually make demands that exceed the children's capabilities. Information should be geared to cognitive maturity, and social skills taught should match the sophistication of the children's social development. The social structure of instruction (e.g., individual, large group, small group, peer tutor) should be one in which the child is comfortable, although other groupings should also be used for variety and to encourage adaptability.
- The learning activities should stress experience—that is, be based on the children's own experiences, provide for learning by way of experiences, and be clearly related to future experiences. Information should be presented in a way that enables children to liken it to something they have experienced, seen, or been a part of—for example, an examination of different kinds of family structures. Children should be allowed to participate in real (or realistic) situations that, while being sensitive to the children's way of viewing the world, do not necessarily reinforce it. Finally, children should be able to see the usefulness of activities to their lives.
- Skills should move from already mastered ones to new ones. Children should have an opportunity to apply new skills to old situations, old skills to new situations, or new skills to new situations. For instance, children can go from comparing others according to height, to comparing them according to other physical attributes, to comparing them according to cultural attributes, to comparing cultural attributes.
- Unique, peculiar or inconsistent examples should be used in activities, so that there are challenges to existing understandings and opportunities to devise ways of handling new situations. However, if conflicts are presented, care should be taken to provide the means to resolve them.

III. Words Into Action

In the preceding pages, we have summarized a great deal of research and theory. We have described some current thinking about citizenship and citizenship education. We have also described what research and theory tell us about three significant influences on children's citizenship education. Finally, we have outlined some recommendations for using these influences to enhance children's citizenship education. In short, we have summarized "words" about citizenship education.

In the following pages, we will turn these "words" into "action" by describing 36 exemplary practices in citizenship education. Fifteen are intended mainly for classroom use and eleven can be initiated by the school and used as community-related programs. We have also briefly summarized 10 commercially-produced practices which we feel are also exemplary. To obtain these practices we contacted hundreds of school and classroom practitioners and directors of community organizations across the country, and we asked them to send us their best citizenship activities, lessons, and programs. We also read dozens of summaries of practices and programs that appeared in journals, books, and government publications. Also, we asked more than fifty publishers to provide us with descriptions of citizenship practices that they thought would be appropriate.

Each practice we received was reviewed to determine if it was consistent with and a good illustration of the research and theory we summarized. We focused first on the developer's goals and objectives to determine if the practice dealt with one of the three influences we had discussed and, if so, which influence was stressed. We then examined each practice to determine its developmental appropriateness, the degree to which it challenged children, its relationship to real-world personal experiences, and its educational integrity and validity. Next, we looked at the teaching and learning strategies emphasized in each practice to determine the part played by children versus that played by adults. Finally, we looked at each practice to see if these strategies were likely to help the children meet the objectives.

The practices we have included in this booklet were selected because we feel that they are good practical translations of the research and theory in citizenship education that we have summarized. All these practices involve, to some extent, the influence of role models, institutional environments, and considerations of individual development. They vary, however, in the amount of emphasis placed on each of these three influences, and they differ in the teaching and learning strategies employed to capitalize on these influences.

ACTION: Practices for Citizenship Education

In this section we present exemplary practices in citizenship education. They are divided as follows:

- Detailed descriptions of elementary school practices.
- Detailed descriptions of secondary school practices.
- Summary descriptions of commercially-produced practices.
- Summary descriptions of community-oriented practices.
- Brief summaries from *A Home and Community Guide to Children's Citizenship Education.*

The detailed elementary and secondary school descriptions follow a step-by-step format. We do this to make it easy to use them as lesson plans.

The commercially-produced and community-oriented practices follow a different format—one that summarizes the practice rather than details it. We do this because the publishers and developers of these practices will, in most cases, supply detailed descriptions if asked.* Furthermore, in the case of the community-oriented ones, the practices are comprised of many activities which do not lend themselves to step-by-step descriptions.

The commercial practices are intended to be used in the classroom or the school. The community-oriented practices, on the other hand, are meant to enlarge children's school and classroom experiences. They were submitted by teachers who intended them as school programs that extended children's citizenship education into the community. We believe, however, that they can be initiated by anyone interested in giving children's citizenship education a community orientation. Because of this, these practices also appear in the companion to this booklet, *Words Into Action: A Home and Community Guide to Children's Citizenship Education.*

Finally come the brief summaries of the exemplary practices described in greater detail in the companion to this booklet. We believe that these practices are also good practical translations of the research and theory, designed to be initiated and carried out by parents or community group leaders.

We include them here as food for thought for those readers interested in further coordinating the home, school, and community aspects of citizenship education. To help in this coordination, we have indicated in these brief summaries the main research or theoretical emphasis of each practice: role models; institutional environments; or considerations of individual develop-

*We have included the names and addresses of all developers. They were provided by the developers themselves or taken from copies of their work and they are, to the best of our knowledge, accurate and current.

ment. We hope that these brief summaries will lead the interested reader to investigate the fuller descriptions of the practices in the home and community guide.

Below is a listing of the practices which relate to the school and classroom. They are keyed to the influence which we feel is most emphasized by each one—role models, institutional environments, or considerations of individual development. We have adapted most of these practices in order to more effectively highlight the use of these influences. But we made no significant changes in the content. We point out that this listing is not rigid. There is overlap, and some practices could easily be listed under more than one influence. We offer this listing only as a convenience, and we hope the reader will use it flexibly.

Seven practices use strategies that mainly involve role models. They focus on the following recommendations.

Role models should:

- provide information accurately and clearly.
- provide children with sources of information or verified and verifiable information.
- provide guidance for children but should not preach to them.
- behave in a way that lets children know that it is important to consider many points of view and many sources of information.

Practices which for the most part stress role models are:

Elementary	The Citizen Ship	31
Secondary	The Message of the Media	47
Community	Art Class Aides	69
	Junior Educators of Tomorrow	72
	Project STOP	74
	Students-as-Teachers	76
	Teaching-Learning Communities Program (T-LC)	79

Fourteen practices use strategies that mainly involve a democratic institutional environment. They focus on the following recommendations.

The institutional environment should:

- allow and encourage open discussion and the opportunity for dissent.
- allow and encourage children to take the initiative in defining and carrying out their own learning experiences.
- allow and encourage children to participate in making decisions about things that affect them.
- closely relate to the real world in terms of the knowledge and skills being taught to children.

Practices which for the most part stress democratic institutional environments are:

Elementary	It's Against the Law	35
Secondary	Changing Laws	43
	Citizen Advisory Councils	44
	Ignorance Is No Excuse	46
	You Are the Judge: A Moral Dilemma	55
Commercial	America's Prisons	59
	Delegate	63
	Skills in Citizen Action: An English-Social Studies Program for Secondary Schools	67
	Voices for Justice	68
Community	Consumer Action Service	70
	Project JONAH	73
	Running the School Store	75
	Solar Pioneers	77
	Youth and Law	80

Fifteen practices use strategies that mainly involve consideration of individual development. They focus on the following recommendations.

Instruction keyed to individual development should:

- present material which is neither too complex nor too simplistic for the children's levels of cognitive, moral, and social development.
- be linked to children's personal experiences—both past and present.
- expand children's cognitive, social, and moral perspectives by exposing them to situations that are unique and new to them.

Practices which for the most part stress individual development are:

Elementary	Circles of Responsibility	29
	Cultural Heritage Week	33
	Naturalization Court Ceremony	37
	Responsibility in Kenya and in America	39
	Spotlight of the Week	41
Secondary	A Public Service Advertising Campaign	48
	Supreme Court Decisions	50
	Voter Registration	53
Commercial	Citizenship Adventures of the Lollipop Dragon	60
	Citizenship Decision-Making	61
	Culture Contact	62
	Equality	64
	First Things: Values	65
	Living with Me and Others	66
Community	High School Medical Scholars	71

I. Elementary School Practices

Circles of Responsibility
(Grade Levels 4, 5, 6)

Skills Involved
Art, Speaking and Writing, Analysis

Materials Needed
Art materials, questionnaire (included)

Subject Areas
Art, Social Studies

Time Required
Introductory activity (discussion, questionnaire, chart making): one hour
Charting may continue all year

Objectives
- to understand the concept of responsibility.
- to accept new responsibilities.
- to compare and contrast different kinds of responsibilities.
- to make a responsibility chart.

Directions

Discuss the concept of responsibility by asking students to define the term and tell to whom they think they are responsible and in what ways.

Distribute the questionnaire for them to fill out.

Have them discuss their responses to the questionnaire and explain how some responsibilities affect their family life, some affect their school lives, and some affect their community or friends.

Ask each student to make an individual "Circles of Responsibility Chart" (see attached sample) and explain that it will be used for charting new responsibilities. You may also want to make one large chart to mark new responsibilities for the entire class. Review them periodically (e.g., once a month).

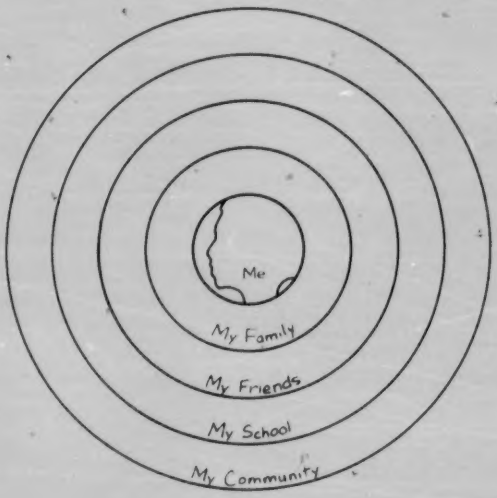
Have students keep track of their new responsibilities as the school year progresses. As each child demonstrates a new responsibility, he/she should write it in the appropriate circle and explain to the class what the new responsibility was and how he/she fulfilled it.

Create a badge or written award to be given at the end of the semester for each child who has increased the number of his/her responsibilities.

Questionnaire for Circles of Responsibility

1. Do you help with household chores? If so, which ones?
2. Do you clean up after your pets?
3. Do you go to bed at a reasonable hour?
4. Do you set aside enough time to do your homework and then stick to it?
5. Do you listen when other people speak, even if you disagree with them? Why or why not?
6. Do you let your brother or sister alone when he or she is upset and wants some privacy? Does he or she do the same for you?
7. Do you pick up cans or boxes thrown along the road?
8. Do you obey all the school rules, even those you don't understand?

Sample Circles of Responsibility Chart



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The Citizen Ship
(Grade Levels 1, 2, 3)

Skills Involved
Comprehension, Analysis, Evaluation of Value Statements, Grouping and Sorting, Speaking and/or Writing

Materials Needed
Ship poster on bulletin board, 3x5 cards

Subject Areas
Language Arts, Social Studies

Time Required
On-going activity that students do independently with periodic class discussions

Objectives

- to understand the concept of citizenship.
- to analyze and evaluate value statements about *good* vs. *bad* citizenship.
- to develop a personal definition of the word "citizenship" and communicate it orally or in writing.

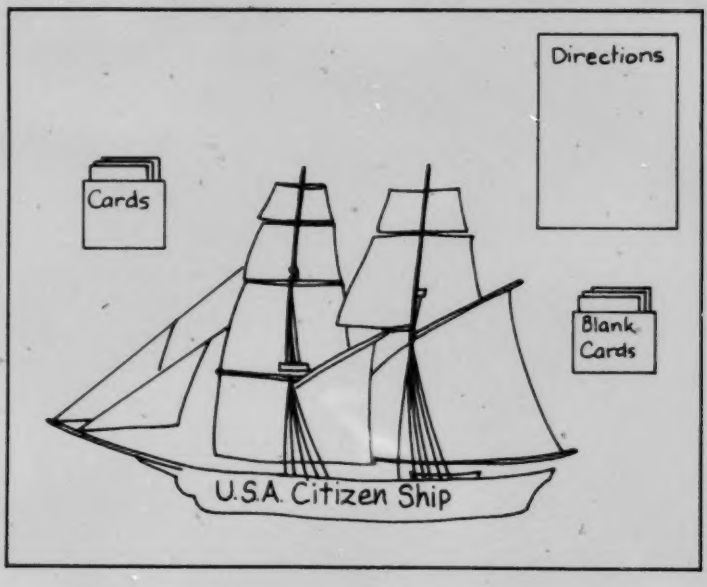
Directions

Make a ship poster like the one on the next page and post it on the bulletin board.

Write on 3x5 cards five good citizenship behaviors and five bad citizenship behaviors for children (e.g., a good citizen obeys traffic signals when crossing the street).

Have children read the cards and choose the ones which describe good citizenship and place those in the pocket on the Citizen Ship. The teacher should replace these cards with new good and bad behaviors from time to time as the activity is repeated. Perhaps describe more complex good and bad citizenship behaviors with each replacement.

Engage students in brief discussions in which they suggest good or bad citizenship behaviors for the cards.



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Cultural Heritage Week
(Grade Levels 1, 2, 3)

Skills Involved
Research, Speaking and Writing

Materials Needed
These will vary for each cultural group as the school year progresses. Volunteer speakers often require props

Subject Areas
Social Studies, Geography, Anthropology, Art, Music, Language Arts

Time Required
Approximately one hour a day for five days for each culture represented; can be repeated periodically during school year

Objectives

- to discover the richness of the mixed heritage among children in a classroom or school.
- to recognize and appreciate the similarities and differences among the cultures of different groups of people.
- to discover, through individual and group research and presentations, unique features of various cultural groups (as reported in a classroom, school, and so on).

Directions

Poll students as to their cultural heritage. A chart or map can be displayed which shows students' names and heritages. Cultural heritage may be a sensitive topic for some students. Because of this, it should be stressed that this activity is voluntary. Also, some students might need help determining their heritage.

Tell students that throughout the school year the class will be putting on cultural heritage weeks honoring all of the heritages represented in the class.

Allow the class, as a whole, to choose the order in which to highlight the various cultures. (Every chosen culture will be honored for a week.)

Send a letter to each child's parents informing them about the cultural heritage weeks. Ask parents to volunteer time and materials during the week their child's heritage is being featured.

The following weekly schedule is suggested to be used for each culture:

Monday: A representative from an embassy, an exchange student, or a guest from the country highlighted might be asked to speak to the class about his/her culture.

Tuesday: A display of art, fabric, books, jewelry, and the like, can be set up.

Wednesday: A study of the foods of the country can be introduced, and specialists asked to prepare ethnic dishes for lunch.

Thursday: Music and dance can be performed by students as well as professionals.

Friday: A fashion show can be held with parents, students, and teachers serving as models. Clothes can be borrowed from homes, local shops, or perhaps a museum.

Follow-up each cultural heritage week by having students discuss what they have learned about their classmates' heritages. Ask what they learned and what surprised them about the featured culture.

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Adapted from the
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It's Against the Law
(Grade Levels 4, 5, 6)

Skills Involved
Speaking, Writing, Hypothesis Formation, Analysis, Evaluation, Working Cooperatively in Small Groups

Materials Needed
List of laws

Subject Areas
American Law, Government, Civics, Values Education

Time Required
Approximately two hours of in-class time

Objectives

- to understand the social value of certain laws.
- to realize that laws develop in response to the changing needs of citizens and thus vary from one group to another and from one time to another.

Directions

Divide the class into four groups. Each group should be assigned three laws from the list on the next page. Ask the groups to read over the laws and figure out why each might have been passed. Ask them to consider what conditions in society they think might have led people to enact the law and what conditions today might force society to keep, rescind, or amend the law.

Ask each group to select a group reporter and have that reporter present the group's ideas to the whole class.

Have each class member write down a rule or law which he/she must follow at home, in school, and in the community, and which seems to be a silly one. Ask each student to present his/her rule to the class and to tell why he/she thinks it is a silly one. A discussion might then follow which addresses the reasons these rules and laws were enacted and are enforced.

List of Laws

1. In Nicholas County, West Virginia, no clergyman shall tell a funny story from the pulpit.
2. In Compton, California, dancing cheek to cheek is prohibited.
3. Beanshooters are forbidden by law in Arkansas. Any person found guilty of using a beanshooter or similar implement shall be guilty of a misdemeanor.

4. It is illegal to hunt or shoot camels in Arizona.
5. In Los Angeles, a customer of a meat market is prohibited by city ordinance from poking a turkey to see if it is tender.
6. In Springfield, Massachusetts, it is against the law to ride on the roof of your automobile.
7. In Lake Charles, Louisiana, law makes it illegal to let a rain puddle remain in your front yard for more than twelve hours.
8. In Hanford, California, people may not interfere with children jumping over water puddles.
9. It is against the law in Pueblo, Colorado, to raise or permit a dandelion to grow within the city limits.
10. In Walden, New York, it is illegal to give a drink of water to anyone unless you have a permit.
11. It is against the law in Illinois for a conductor to collect fares without his hat on.
12. In Bradford, Connecticut, it's against the law to appear on the street unless covered from shoulder to knee.
13. It is against the law to slap a man on the back in Georgia.
14. In Vermont it is illegal to whistle under water.
15. All taxicabs must carry a broom and shovel in the District of Columbia.
16. In Key West, Florida, turtle racing is prohibited within city limits.
17. In Fort Madison, Iowa, law requires the fire department to practice 15 minutes before attending a fire.
18. It's against the law to gargle in public in Louisiana.
19. Rochester, New York, firemen must wear neckties on duty.
20. In Kentucky it is illegal to sleep in a restaurant.
21. A South Carolina law forbids people to crawl around in public sewers without a written permit from the authorities.
22. In Rochester, Michigan, anyone bathing in public must first have his suit inspected by a police officer.

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Naturalization Court Ceremony
(Grade Levels 4, 5, 6)

Skills Involved
Writing and Speaking, Analysis and Evaluation, Decision Making

Materials Needed
World map, crayons or colored pencils, writing materials

Subject Areas
Social Studies, Art

Time Required
Approximately ten hours of in-class and out-of-class time

Objectives

- to recognize America's ethnic diversity and richness.
- to recognize that U.S. citizenship is highly valued and worthy of effort and commitment.
- to recognize the differences between citizenship by birth and citizenship by naturalization.
- to become aware of the judge's function in granting citizenship.
- to express pride in community by welcoming new citizens.

Directions

Contact the local Naturalization Court coordinator to find out from which countries current prospective citizens come.

Post a wall map of the world, marking on it origins of the soon-to-be naturalized aliens. A discussion might be initiated to determine what an alien is.

Invite the Naturalization Court coordinator to the classroom to explain procedures for obtaining citizenship and to help the students decide what role they can play in the naturalization ceremony they are to witness, if feasible.

Have the class brainstorm how to "advertise" their community as a good place to live. Students could list some of the benefits of living in their community.

Create display posters and have students compose letters containing personal greetings to new citizens and inviting them to feel welcome and enjoy the benefits of the community. (Lists of new citizens can probably be obtained from county or city officers or from the Naturalization Court coordinator.)

Arrange to take the class to an actual Naturalization Court ceremony if at all possible. (Perhaps arrange with the judge beforehand to introduce the class to the naturalization candidates.) At the end of the naturalization ceremony, the students could shake the new citizens' hands and offer welcome to them.

Discuss the students' reactions to the ceremony once the class has returned to the classroom. Here feelings may be explored about how the students feel about being U.S. citizens and having the rights and responsibilities of citizens.

Have the class write a thank-you letter to the judge expressing how they felt about the ceremony and telling what they learned.

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Responsibility in Kenya and in America
(Grade Levels 4, 5, 6)

Skills Involved
Problem Solving, Moral Reasoning, Reading Comprehension, Speaking

Materials Needed
Map of Africa, case study (on next page), writing materials

Subject Areas
Social Studies, Law, Anthropology, Sociology, World Cultures, World History

Time Required
Approximately two to three in-class hours

Objectives

- to recognize value conflicts that result from cultural or economic conflicts.
- to compare and contrast culturally-determined values systems.
- to recognize possible alternatives for resolving a specific conflict.
- to decide upon a resolution for the dilemma and state reasons for the decision.

Directions

Discuss the concept of responsibility by asking students to suggest responsibilities that parents typically have toward their children in our society.

Locate Kenya on the map of Africa and lead a discussion of how people often have different ideas about responsibilities of parents toward their children and that these differences may relate to cultural differences.

Have students research some differences between various Kenyan cultures and various American cultures.

Distribute copies of the case study on the next page for the class to read.

Discuss the students' reactions to the father's dilemma and the way he solved it. Have the students describe how they see his conflicts. Have them do the same for the conflicts faced by the American parents.

Have the class resolve the responsibility conflict and decide what should be done with the Kenyan child. Have students list their reasons and present them to the class.

Follow-up with research and discussion of American adoption procedures or differences in attitudes towards the role of females in various societies and cultures.

Case Study

A young African woman of Kenya died in childbirth leaving her husband with the responsibility of providing for their child. The father of the child was, at the age of twenty, the sole support of his parents and seven younger brothers and sisters. He felt that he was unable to assume the additional burden of rearing his baby with the care and attention that she needed. After careful consideration, he decided to "give" the baby to a white American family living in Kenya.

Although the American family consisted of parents and two teenage girls, they were happy to care for the child, and the teenagers were delighted with their new "sister." Soon the family came to love the child and to think of her as a true member of the family.

Now the family is thinking about adopting the baby and bringing her back with them to the United States at the end of seven years.

The family is not sure that they should do this, however, since the baby's family also loves the child, and a sister of the baby's mother has offered to give the child a home. Also, a female baby is considered valuable by her tribe. When she is older she will help with the crops, haul and chop wood, and bring a "bride's price" from her future husband to her poor family.

An additional worry to the foster parents is that by taking the child away to another country, the child will be deprived of knowledge about her native culture and family.

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Spotlight of the Week
(Grade Levels 1, 2, 3)

Skills Involved
Speaking, Inquiry, Role Playing

Materials Needed
Art materials

Subject Areas
Social Studies

Time Required
Introduction, 15 minutes; Preparation for spotlighting, one hour; interview and discussion, one hour

Objectives
- to recognize individual similarities and differences.
- to distinguish his/her personality traits from others' personality traits.

Directions
This activity is to be introduced shortly after school opens in September.

Introduce the activity by asking students to look around the classroom at each other. Point out that every person in the class is different and equally important. Tell the students that everyone in the class will have an opportunity throughout the school year to be the *most* important person in the class for a day. Explain that although only one person will be spotlighted per week, all students will have a role in preparing for that day.

Have the students create press badges, microphones, and so on, and set up a podium. Have them list the questions to be used for the interview.

Help select reporters who will do the spotlighting.

Have the reporters interview the spotlighted person about his/her family life, customs or traditions, foods, pets, or likes and dislikes.

Have the entire class talk about what they have learned at the end of each interview.

Follow-up by having the class choose a community person they would like to find out more about. Arrange an interview with that person.

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Changing Laws
(Grade Levels 7, 8, 9)

Skills Involved
Discussion, Inquiry, Valuing, Interviewing, Composition

Materials Needed
No special materials needed

Subject Areas
Civics, Law, History

Time Required
Two 50-minute class periods

Objectives

- to recognize the need for laws.
- to realize that laws can be changed.
- to foresee what laws may change in the future and how their change might affect students personally.
- to investigate the origin of some laws.
- to become aware that laws often reflect the social climate and as that climate changes, laws often change.

Directions

Ask students to define what they think a law is and how they feel about obeying laws. If students are not sure of what a law is, cite examples. Inquire whether students think the laws they obey today are the same laws that existed 50 or 60 years ago, and ask them to explain their answers.

Have students discuss with their parents and/or other older relatives laws which the adults followed as teenagers but which no longer exist or have been changed. One example could be the lowering of the voting age from 21 to 18.

Have the class form a discussion circle and give each student an opportunity to cite a nonexistent or changed law and why the law has changed. Discuss what events may have led up to the changing of each law cited. After discussion, ask students to write a composition speculating on changes in the law for the next 50 years.

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Citizen Advisory Councils
(Grade Levels 10, 11, 12)

Skills Involved
Critical Thinking, Values Analysis, Decision Making, Role Playing

Materials Needed
Copies of newspaper article on next page, copies of school philosophy

Subject Areas
Sociology, History, Government

Time Required
Two to three 50-minute class periods

Objectives
- to describe and define the role and tasks of a citizen advisory council.
- to identify possible participants and their respective reasons for joining a citizen advisory council.
- to recognize a school's needs and set goals to meet those needs.

Directions

Discuss the concept of a formal education.

Ask students to consider what they believe to be the goal of a formal education. Record the answers on the chalkboard.

Discuss which goals the class believes to be the "right" ones and why. Discuss the role the public can play in deciding what goals are chosen by schools. Have the class hypothesize kinds of community persons that should be involved in drafting such goals.

Distribute copies of the newspaper article reprinted on the next page.

Have students read it and discuss the purpose of the citizen advisory council in Los Angeles. Ask them to decide if such an advisory council would work in their community.

Divide the class into 4 or 5 groups, each representing different groups (community, parent, teacher, and the like) that might sit on a citizen advisory council for the school district. Ask each group to set and list goals for the district, as that group would see them.

Give each group a copy of the school philosophy. Let them rewrite it and reevaluate the goals they've already written in terms of the new philosophy.

Have a representative of each group report on the philosophy, goals, and group processes involved in the exercise.

Follow-up by having the class decide upon and write a common school philosophy and common school goals. Have them write a letter to the principal or select representatives to go in person to let him/her know their opinions.

"Public to Be Given Role in Deciding City Schools' Goals"

Should the city schools teach your child "saleable skills, understandings and attitudes that make the worker . . . a productive participant in economic life"?

Or should they concentrate on developing "a full array of thinking and problem-solving skills" exercised by independent minds and self-directed individuals?

Or should the schools try to do both?

Starting shortly, citizen advisory councils at each of the district's 626 schools will try, under the district's plan, to marshal community interest in deciding what public education should comprise in today's world.

The process will be repeated en masse throughout the county and state in the coming weeks as one of the first endeavors of its kind in the nation.

The lay public will be asked to chart educational goals of the future as part of a statewide plan promulgated by the Legislature.

If the public is dissatisfied with education and wants change, as the thinking goes, then it first must decide what the schools should be doing.

Goal-setting is considered the first step toward holding the schools accountable for their performance in educating children.

What happens then depends on many factors, including whether schools are willing to adapt their actions to the adopted goals.

Is the program unrealistic?

Possibly, but the project leader thinks the plan is "the only way out of the chaos we are in."

"If it is a dream," he said, "it had better become a reality. People see too many inconsistencies and irrelevancies in education. Education, like a lot of other institutions, is in trouble."

"The concept of public education is worth saving but schools must be reformed. They have got to become more personalized and individualized, and people must come to feel responsible for the decisions now made for them by institutions."

"If the effort produces nothing more than partial removal of the wall that often exists between schools and parents," he said, "it would be a major accomplishment."

The goals coordinator for the Los Angeles district said, "If the district's goals are to reflect the desires of the total community, it is imperative that large numbers of those served by the schools—parents, community representatives, students (at the secondary level) and others—be involved in the goal setting process."

Excerpted from the *Los Angeles Times*, January 15, 1973
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Ignorance Is No Excuse
(Grade Levels 7, 8, 9)

Skills Involved
Inquiry, Discussion, Analysis

Materials Needed
No special materials needed

Subject Areas
Civics, Law, History

Time Required
One 50-minute class period

Objectives
- to determine which laws directly affect students' lives.
- to recognize the impact of laws on everyday life.
- to analyze the purpose of public safety laws.

Directions
This activity focuses on creating an awareness of the need for laws in our society.

Write the following statement on the board and ask students to discuss its meaning: "Ignorance of the law is no excuse." The discussion should focus on making students aware of the need for laws.

Divide the class into two groups: those students who walk to school and those who ride. Have each group list laws devised to protect them during their trips to and from school.

Have the class discuss the importance to their lives of the laws on the lists. A similar exercise can be done using school rules rather than laws. In this exercise, focus on the similarities and differences between school rules and laws. Discuss, for example, what happens when rules or laws are disobeyed.

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The Message of the Media
(Grade Levels 10, 11, 12)

Skills Involved
Critical Reading, Analysis, Inquiry

Materials Needed
Newspapers, journals or magazines

Subject Areas
Government, Journalism, Law, History

Time Required
Two or three 50-minute periods

Objectives
- to discriminate between fact and opinion.
- to recognize the point of view taken by specific media.
- to compare and contrast media coverage of an event or issue.
- to recognize the way media can influence the outcome of an issue.

Directions

Discuss what sections and in what order students read the newspaper or magazines. List which sections are read most. Point out to the class that these are known as "prime spaces" and are used for the most important stories.

Have students read newspaper or magazine articles that describe a current issue (not editorials or Op-Ed columns). Ask the students to identify in writing those statements that seem to be facts and those that seem to be opinions or inferences.

Have the students compare and contrast their analyses of the stories with the way each newspaper or magazine treated the story. Ask them to consider the page the article appeared on, its placement on the page, whether pictures were used, and whether it was set off by headlines. Ask how this treatment affected their reaction to the news issue.

Follow-up by having students discuss their attitudes toward the press and the subtle way the press can influence readers. Divide students into four sections and assign each a contemporary news event or issue. Ask each to prepare a 60-second news report aimed at swaying as well as informing the public. If possible, tape the reports and discuss the ways in which the student reports attempted to bias the public. Have students distinguish between the facts and opinions in each report.

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A Public Service Advertising Campaign
(Grade Levels 7, 8, 9)

Skills Involved
Decision Making, Art, Analysis, Evaluation, Research, Speaking and Writing

Materials Needed
Art materials, magazines

Subject Areas
Civics, Art, History, English, Speech

Time Required
Research for campaign: two to three 50-minute periods.
Create campaign materials: two to three periods

Objectives
- to investigate and use advertising strategies.
- to investigate the power of advertising to change people's attitudes and behavior.
- to plan and execute a public service advertising campaign.
- to develop graphic and written material for a public service advertising campaign.

Directions

Discuss public service advertising, both its uses and abuses.

Have students collect examples of such advertising in newspapers and magazines. Post the examples on the bulletin board for study.

Have students select a topic they believe is important to the school community (e.g., graffiti, neighborhood crime).

Have students collect as many facts as possible about the topic, either in small groups or as individual assignments.

Have students decide upon a position they wish to take on a topic. Have them write an outline of what they wish to accomplish with regard to their position and the message they want to get across.

Have students propose alternative public service advertising strategies for getting their message across (e.g., leaflets, displays, contests, newspaper ads). Students may want to research the relative effectiveness of these strategies before choosing which ones to use.

Create a public service advertising campaign using professional techniques such as creating slogans and designing visuals (bumper stickers, posters, pamphlets, flyers, ads, and the like) to be distributed in school and posted on bulletin boards, in community store windows, on market bulletin boards and printed in area newspapers.

Follow-up after the campaign has run for a month by having students determine if it has succeeded. Have a discussion focusing on the results of the campaign and what was learned during the experience. Consider which techniques worked best and think of suggestions for better approaches.

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Supreme Court Decisions
(Grade Levels 7, 8, 9)

Skills Involved
Analysis, Decision Making, Problem Solving, Critical Thinking, Valuing, Working in Small Groups

Materials Needed
Copies of sample cases and worksheets

Subject Areas
History, Law, Civics, Government

Time Required
Four 50-minute class periods

Objectives
- to recognize that laws are made to protect people.
- to develop analytical thinking and judging skills.
- to develop decision-making skills.

Directions
This lesson could be used following a lesson on the U.S. court system and the Supreme Court.

Distribute court cases and copies of the worksheet shown on the next two pages. Divide the class into four groups. The class will spend two class periods reviewing the cases and filling out the worksheets.

Ask each group to select a group reporter. The reporter will present each group's decisions and describe some of the thinking that went into that decision. After the presentations tell the class the decisions* made by the *real* judges and have the class discuss these decisions.

Compare student decisions to the actual decisions in light of their similarities and differences. Have students hypothesize about the thinking that resulted in the judges' decisions.

Supreme Court Cases

Case Number 1:

In West Virginia, several children were expelled from public schools for refusing to salute the flag. These children were members of a religious sect called Jehovah's Witnesses. The Witnesses maintain

*The actual decisions were as follows: Case number 1: yes; Case number 2: yes; Case number 3: no.

that saluting the flag violates a Biblical injunction in which they strongly believe: "Thou shalt not make unto thee any graven image; . . . Thou shalt not bow down thyself to them nor serve them." To the Witnesses, the salute is a form of bowing down to an image.

Question: Do you believe that the religious rights of these children were violated?

Case Number 2:

In Virginia, people were required to pay a $1.50 tax in order to vote in state and local elections. Mrs. Gladys Berry, along with several other people, refused to pay the tax. They claimed that the tax interfered with the right to vote and also discriminated against classes of persons otherwise qualified to vote, especially the poor. The state of Virginia argued that the states have the power to establish certain voting qualifications and that applying the tax insured that the voter was reasonably intelligent and responsible.

Question: Do you feel that the required voting tax violated the rights of the people?

Case Number 3:

San Francisco, like many American cities, has laws requiring that buildings be safe and sanitary places to live. The city hires people to inspect the buildings for violations of the law.

A San Francisco building inspector came to Roland Camara's house. Because the city inspector did not have a search warrant, Camara would not let him in. The inspector left. Later he returned—again without a warrant. Again Camara refused to let him in. The police then arrested Camara. He was charged with breaking a San Francisco law that required a building owner to admit a housing inspector without a warrant. California state courts found Camara guilty.

Camara appealed to the U.S. Supreme Court. He claimed that his Fourth Amendment rights had been violated. He argued that his home could be searched only with a legal warrant. In order to get a warrant, the inspector had to show a judge good reason to search.

The city of San Francisco replied that it wanted all buildings to be safe. To see that they were safe, each had to be inspected. It would be an expensive and time-consuming process for an inspector to get a warrant for every building he wished to inspect.

Question: Should a building inspector be able to inspect a house without a warrant?

Worksheet for
"Supreme Court Decisions"

Group Members:

Case Number ____ Number Voting Yes ___ Number Voting No___
Explanation of the reasons for the way the group members voted:

Majority Opinion

Concurring Opinion

Dissenting Opinion

Developer
Vicky Trampe
Central Jr. High School
200 S. W. 4th Street
Forest Lake, Minn. 55025

Voter Registration*
(Grade Levels 10, 11, 12)

Skills Involved
Writing, Interviewing, Research, Analysis of Information, Chart Making, Interpretation, Hypothesis Testing

Materials Needed
Voter registration forms, change of address post card

Subject Areas
American Government, Civics, Political Science, Geography, Mathematics

Time Required
Discussion and simulation: two to three 50-minute class periods; Canvassing activity preparation: one class period; Actual canvassing: one or two hours; Analysis: two to three class periods.

Objectives

- to help register voters in a local community.
- to determine some characteristics of local community residents.
- to develop and carry out a voter registration strategy and recognize the procedures and qualifications involved in voting within a particular community or state.
- to be able to fill out a voter registration form.
- to interpret and extrapolate information about individual voters in order to develop a voter profile for a neighborhood.

Directions

Introduce the concept of voting in a democracy by asking the class to consider the procedures involved and the importance of the freedom to vote.

Discuss your state's or local community's qualifications for voting and the principal methods of voter registration in your local community.

Describe the notion of voter registration and explain how to use voter registration forms. Discuss community canvassing techniques and try a few simulations in class.

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*Voter registration by mail is not practiced in all states. Therefore, we advise that the teacher investigate whether this activity can be done.

Have the class research a neighborhood with low voter registration and develop a strategy to register voters in that neighborhood.

Inform your County Office of Voter Registration that you plan to canvass neighborhood citizens and help register them to vote. Obtain the necessary forms from this office.

Have the class prepare a canvassing sheet to record information concerning the numbers of potential voters and their political desires. Then have the class canvass in the selected neighborhood and fill in the voter registration forms.

Have students analyze the canvassing information and develop a profile of the type of people registered before asking the class to project the type of elected officials the community will prefer.

Mail the completed forms to the County Voter Registration Office. If election time is near, test the hypotheses by analyzing the voters' choices.

Developer
James A. Federici
3433-C South Broad Street
Trenton, N.J. 08610

You Are the Judge: A Moral Dilemma
(Grade Levels 10, 11, 12)

Skills Involved
Values Analysis, Critical Thinking, Moral Reasoning, Decision Making, Working in Small Groups, Speaking and Writing

Materials Needed
Copies of the court case study printed on the following pages

Subject Areas
Civics, History, Government, Social Studies, Values Education

Time Required
Three to five 50-minute class periods

Objectives
- to understand what a moral dilemma is.
- to compare and contrast factual content of court testimony.
- to analyze facts and testimony.
- to weigh alternatives and come to a decision.
- to communicate opinions and decisions verbally and in writing.
- to reevaluate one's decision.
- to become aware of other value orientations.
- to recognize the universality of moral dilemmas.

Directions

Explain what a moral dilemma is and have the students describe ones they face every day. Once the concept is understood, distribute copies of the case study printed on the following pages and ask the students to read it.

Divide the class into groups of three. Each group will constitute a court of judges. One student from each court should be Presiding Judge. This student will also be spokesperson for the court and be responsible for writing the opinion.

Have each group of judges discuss the case, reviewing the facts and the testimony presented at the trial.

Some suggested questions students might consider in reaching their verdict are:
- Does a person have a right to kill in self-defense?
- Does a person have a right to kill in order to escape from a government which denies him or her freedom to leave the country?
- Is the evidence presented in this case sufficient to find the defendant (Werner Weinhold) guilty?

- If the defendant is guilty, then what would be a just punishment for the crime?
- If the defendant is not guilty, then what protection, if any, should he be given following his release?

When each court has reached a decision, have the Presiding Judge write a short opinion or statement that explains what the court decided. The opinion should also briefly explain why the court reached its decision.

If all three judges agree on the verdict and the reasons for it, the Court should write one opinion. If one of the judges disagrees, two opinions should be written, one a majority opinion and the other a minority opinion.

Have each court present the opinion(s) to the class. Have students compare the decisions and discuss the reasons that each court gave.

When students have completed their discussion, tell them the decision made by the West German court in the case of Werner Weinhold. Compare their decisions and reasons with those of the West German judges.

Follow-up by having students investigate and discuss politically repressive regimes in the world, or the work of the Human Rights Commission established by the United Nations to consider cases of violation of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights (copies obtainable from the United Nations Association of the United States of America, 300 E. 42nd Street, New York, N.Y. 10017).

What Happened on the Night of December 19th?

The Facts in the Case

Werner Weinhold was a 27-year-old private in the East German Army. He was unhappy because the government under which he lived denied him freedoms he thought he ought to have as a human being. Werner was especially angry because he and most other East Germans are not allowed to leave their country, even to visit relatives in West Germany. Therefore, Werner slipped away from his unit, which was stationed in Dresden, taking a submachine gun with him. He stole a series of cars and used them to make his way to the border between East and West Germany. For three nights Werner hid in a barn in the wooded, hilly region of Thuringen. Then, still wearing his army uniform, he decided to try to escape across the most heavily guarded frontier in all Europe. Along "the death strips," or the frontier, are barbed wire entanglements with strips of ploughed-up land, watchtowers, and minefields. The strips are patrolled by dogs and by armed guards who are on 24-hour alert. The guards have orders to prevent anyone—man,

woman, or child—from leaving East Germany. If necessary, the patrols are "to use force of arms" and "shoot to kill."

Luckier than most people who have tried to cross the frontier, Werner did manage to escape. He then hitch-hiked across West Germany to the home of some relatives. It was there that he later was arrested on charges brought by the East German government. Two border guards, Klaus Seidel and Juergen Lange, had been found shot in their backs. Neither had fired his weapon.

Although the East German government demanded that Werner be returned to stand trial in his homeland, the West German government refused to give him up or extradite him. That refusal infuriated the East Germans. They even offered a reward of 100,000 marks ($41,860) to anyone who could capture and return Werner to them. No one was able to do so, however, because Werner Weinhold was taken into custody by the West Germans. He was brought to trial in the city of Essen. The charge? Murder.

What Werner Weinhold Said in His Defense

As I was fleeing across the heavily guarded border, I came under automatic weapons fire. In self-defense I spun around and emptied a clip of submachine gun fire in the direction from which the first shots came. I am very sorry if I killed the two guards. I wish all those who want to leave East Germany could be allowed to do so. Then such things would not happen.

What the East German Government Did

The East German government sent copies of what they said was "documentary evidence" in the case. That government did not send

the bullets recovered from the bodies of the border guards, however. Nor did it allow witnesses to travel to the court in Essen, West Germany, to testify in the case.

What the West German Prosecutor Did

The West German prosecutor accepted the evidence from the East Germans as factual. He asked that Werner Weinhold be found guilty and given a jail sentence of 10 and a half years. (In West Germany, the maximum penalty for unpremeditated [unplanned] murder is 15 years. Life imprisonment is a penalty for only one crime—premeditated [or planned] murder. The death penalty is not allowed, no matter what the crime.)

Now You, the Judge, Must Decide

Now that all of the testimony in the case has been given, you, one of the three judges, must decide. In the West German courts, cases are heard by judges and decided by them much as they are in the United States Supreme Court. Sometimes "professional" jurors or persons specially trained in law do hear cases there, but West Germany does not have a jury system like ours. No "amateurs" or persons untrained in law and selected at random ever sit in judgment.

Court's Decision

On December 3, 1976, the West German High Court acquitted Werner Weinhold of the murder of two border guards. The Court ruled that conclusive evidence had not been provided that the bullets from Weinhold's gun had killed the guards. Those bullets might have come from shots fired by other guards attempting to stop Weinhold. The Court went on to say that "it regretted that two people had died" of what it called "political realities." Speaking for the Court, the judge said that the East Germans had turned the border areas into a "fortress-like killing zone," and that the orders by East German authorities to "shoot to kill" people trying to escape were "just as illegal as the coercion used to keep East Germans from going where they liked by other means."

East German reaction to the acquittal was immediate. The official news agency called it scandalous, shocking, and a miscarriage of justice.

Adapted from *Intercom 86, Global Perspectives: The Human Dimension* and printed with permission from *Global Perspectives in Education*
218 E. 18th Street
New York, N.Y. 10003

Developer
Margaret S. Branson
David C. King

III. Commercial Practices

America's Prisons
(Grade Levels 10, 11, 12)

Skills Involved
Decision Making, Role Playing, Observation, Chart and Graph Interpretation, Evaluation, Inference Making

Materials
A complete unit costs $59.95 and includes 5 wall posters, 30 photo study prints, a cassette tape, a teacher's guide, and 20 duplicating masters

Summary

America's Prisons is a multimedia unit intended to present an objective overview of some realities of prison life. Using visual and audio materials, students become involved in observation and decision making as they explore American prisons and those who endure them—guards, inmates, and administrators.

Publisher
Correctional Service of Minnesota
1427 Washington Avenue, South
Minneapolis, Minn. 55454

Citizenship Adventures of the Lollipop Dragon
(Grade Levels K, 1, 2, 3)

Skills Involved
Decision Making

Materials
The complete series of six filmstrips with records or cassettes and a teacher's guide costs $105. Filmstrips and records or cassettes can also be bought one lesson at a time

Summary

Citizenship Adventures of the Lollipop Dragon is a series of six sound filmstrips. Each filmstrip has a stop frame to encourage viewer participation. The stop frame usually comes at a crisis point halfway through the story. The goal of this series is to help prepare students, intellectually and emotionally, for the task of being a good citizen.

Publisher
Society for Visual Education, Inc.
1345 Diversey Parkway
Chicago, Ill. 60614

Citizenship Decision-Making
(Grade Levels 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9)

Skills Involved
Decision Making, Judging, Valuing, Problem Solving, Reading, Writing, and Speaking

Materials
The teacher's text contains the activities and needed materials and costs $9.60

Summary

Citizenship Decision-Making contains many flexible lessons which cover various subject areas centered around the decision-making process. They are described in easy-to-follow formats, and each is designed to be carried out in 30 to 40 minute class periods. The teachers may choose which practices they want to use and may adapt the lessons to meet the needs of their classes' grade levels and abilities. The lessons should be taught sequentially and are categorized into four units: Decisions and You (10 lessons to increase awareness of the need for decision making); Making Decisions (6 lessons to develop decision-making skills); Judging Decisions (5 lessons to help strengthen the ability to make judgments); and Influencing Decisions (4 lessons to help develop skills associated with influencing decisions).

Publisher
Addison Wesley Publishing Co.
1843 Hicks Road
Rolling Meadows, Ill. 60008

Culture Contact
(Grade Levels 7, 8, 9)

Skills Involved
Problem Solving, Role Playing, Decision Making, Valuing

Materials
This simulation package (game and manual) costs approximately $35

Summary

In *Culture Contact* students are grouped into two very different societies that establish trade contact. Through this trading, the members of each society get a chance to experience how social structure operates, how government works, how language barriers can affect relationships, and how communication is established. The outcome depends entirely on the players' actions. The game requires a willingness on the part of the students to assume precise roles in experiencing possible intercultural problems and exploring solutions.

Publisher
Abt Associates, Inc.
55 Wheeler St.
Cambridge, Mass. 02138

Delegate

(Grade Levels 8, 9, 10, 11, 12)

Skills Involved

Role Playing, Decision Making, Problem Solving, Group Interaction, Evaluation, Writing

Materials

The unit simulation package is $14

Summary

Delegate is a simulation activity in which students assume the roles of delegates at a national political party convention. The class is divided into five groups: radical, liberal, moderate, conservative, and reactionary. The groups try to settle problems concerning contested delegations, to write the party's platform, and to select the presidential and vice presidential candidates. Major party platform issues are provided for consideration (e.g., taxation, welfare reform, race relations, prison reform). Students evaluate the convention system in a debriefing session and make suggestions for improvement.

Publisher
Interact
Box 262
Lakeside, Calif. 92040

Equality
(Grade Levels 5, 6, 7, 8)

Skills Involved
Role Playing, Reading, Problem Solving, Decision Making, Writing, Group Interaction, Evaluation

Materials
The unit simulation package costs $14

Summary

Equality is a simulation activity in which students role play a slave society of "Uglies" on an imaginary planet and record their experiences in a journal. They discover how being owned affects their individual personalities. Then the major part of the activity begins, and students become citizens of an imaginary city called Independence. Their ethnic heritage is determined by drawing identity tags which contain role information (e.g., age, color, education, occupation). Once placed in one of Independence's six neighborhoods, which range from city ghettos to rich suburban estates, they role play certain incidents involving tension between minority groups. Students acquire self-image points during their interactions and may lose some as determined by Fate Cards. The basic crisis they must handle involves school integration. A final debriefing session gives children the chance to talk about their attitudes and feelings toward racial problems and to evaluate the simulation as a learning strategy.

Publisher
Interact
Box 262
Lakeside, Calif. 92040

First Things: Values
(Grade Levels K, 1, 2, 3)

Skills Involved
Moral Reasoning, Valuing, Role Playing

Materials
The series consists of five individually boxed units each with two sound (cassette or record) filmstrips. The cost is approximately $25 per unit

Summary

In *First Things: Values*, each unit contains a moral topic important to primary school-age children, and for each topic two dilemmas are presented. The first dilemma offers students a number of possible solutions which they may consider along with their own. The second dilemma offers no solutions in order to encourage children to make and then support their own solutions. Classroom activities offered include filmstrip viewing, discussion, and role playing. The teacher's guide provides a short explanation of Lawrence Kohlberg's stages of moral reasoning, a script of the filmstrip narration, sample questions, and a bibliography.

Publisher
Guidance Associates
Pleasantville, N.Y. 10570

Living with Me and Others
(Grade Levels K through 6)

Skills Involved
Valuing, Discussion, Judging, Inquiry, Decision Making

Materials
One teacher's kit for each of the six levels (Levels A through F) contains the lessons and needed materials for each unit. Each costs $39.95

Summary

Living with Me and Others is a series of character education lessons presented in a series of teacher guides designed to help develop children's individual value systems. The suggested teaching activities include story telling, discussion, role playing, singing, and so on. The methodology recommended involves the children in recognizing problems in their daily lives, classifying what they find, choosing behavior alternatives, weighing the consequences of possible choices, and proceeding with the most satisfying action. Self-discovery is the key to their research into valuing. Children are free to make their own decisions. Unit topics for grades K through 3 include honesty, generosity, and justice, while topics for grades 4 through 6 include convictions, courage, and tolerance.

Publisher
Thomas Jefferson Research Center
1143 North Lake Avenue
Pasadena, Calif. 91104

Skills in Citizen Action: An English-Social Studies Program for Secondary Schools (Grade Levels 11 and 12)

Skills Involved
Valuing, Writing, Speaking, Research and Analysis, Decision Making, Judging

Materials
The text is approximately $3.75

Summary

Skills in Citizen Action is a book for educators which offers an overview of many diverse approaches toward establishing a citizenship education curriculum in conventional secondary school environments. It is not a "prepackaged" curriculum nor does it advocate one specific teaching strategy. It does delineate what a citizenship education curriculum should include and how to go about incorporating such a curriculum in the school. Within the flexible parameters of this curriculum outline, teachers are required to act in a variety of roles (e.g., facilitator, coordinator, advisor, teacher). Student activities include community action projects and analysis and production of media presentations related to public concerns.

Publisher
National Textbook Company
8259 Niles Center Road
Skokie, Ill. 60076

Voices for Justice
(Grade Levels 10, 11, 12)

Skills Involved
Decision Making, Role Playing, Valuing

Materials
The student text and teacher's guide are each under $3

Summary

Eight case studies range from state commission hearings to federal executive, legislative, and judicial hearings. Each case study calls for discussion of the issues and requires participation in decision making through role playing. Students learn to identify and describe conflicts of interest and values, to research information needed to solve a problem, to forecast and evaluate the consequences of choices, and to practice a variety of democratic procedures in handling disagreements. A teacher's guide outlines an eight-step process.

Publisher
Ginn and Co.
Lexington, Mass. 02173

IV. Community-Related Practices

Art Class Aides

Community Characteristics

Although strictly speaking, this activity is not a community program, we are summarizing it this way because it is not a single lesson or activity. Rather, it is one that can be used in many subject areas and can be incorporated into many aspects of a school program.

Student Participants

There are no formal requirements for participation. The activity is suggested for children in 4th, 5th, and 6th grades.

Summary

Student aides (peers and older students) assist teachers in the art classes of younger students. Aides help set up art interest areas (e.g., clay, paint, puppetry) and then assist the younger children in their choice of materials, size of working groups, organization of work spaces, and so on. This activity can be carried out in a variety of subject areas where the teacher may relinquish some authority to students who are able to initiate and carry out some teaching responsibilities.

Outcomes

Students who become art class aides can strengthen their leadership skills and, through responsible action, increase their sense of self-esteem. They begin to develop an awareness of what it takes to teach others. They also increase their communication skills by working with younger children. The younger students benefit from the interest of the class aides who often motivate them to be more self-reliant and to be more eager to participate in art class.

Contact
Carole A. Bowker, A.T.R.
115 Dixboro Road
Ann Arbor, Mich. 48105
(313) 994-6034

Consumer Action Service

Community Characteristics

This program has been successful in a variety of urban and suburban neighborhoods in the St. Paul/Minneapolis area.

Participants

All senior high students in the St. Paul Public School District are eligible. Presently, 230 youth belong to Students Serving Students, the organization through which the *Consumer Action Service* functions.

Summary

The *Consumer Action Service* grew out of a course in the St. Paul Open School. Today it involves many of the students participating in the Students Serving Students Program which draws 10th, 11th, and 12th graders from eight area high schools. Student participants have developed and produced a Student Survival Handbook which has 88 pages of information designed to help teenage consumers buy a car, find pregnancy testing, learn about their legal rights and responsibilities, and the like. The *Consumer Action Service* also sponsors a Career Day, the last of which was made into a local television special where 30 community resource people explained such professions as carpentry, data processing, and funeral direction to 150 students. *Consumer Action Service* also publishes *Open Action*, a newsletter for students and community members which reports the organization's activities, lists job openings for adolescents, and offers health advice.

Outcomes

Dealing with consumer complaints gives participants in the *Consumer Action Service* practical experience to help them develop their problem-solving, communication and decision-making skills. They can learn more about the rights and responsibilities of the consumer in our society and better understand the practical side of consumer life, such as how to buy a car, rent an apartment, or return defective merchandise. The *Consumer Action Service* enables youngsters to take a leadership role in their community. This involvement often gives them a strong sense of responsibility which bolsters their self-esteem.

Contact
Elizabeth Lampland, Director
Students Serving Students
97 East Central Avenue, St. Paul, Minn. 55101
(612) 292-1225

High School Medical Scholars

Community Characteristics

This program operates in a rural community where there are few dentists, doctors, or other professionals.

Participants

Juniors and seniors from seven high schools participate in this program. They are high achieving students who are interested in the health fields of medicine or dentistry and have a minimum grade average of B+ or higher.

Summary

High School Medical Scholars is a program run by the University of Mississippi Medical Center, through the Office of Minority Student Affairs, which sponsors a series of weekly lectures and seminars for gifted high school juniors interested in entering the medical profession. The hour-long lectures are delivered by the center's medical students and include such topics as pregnancy, drug abuse, dentistry, and medical history. Each series of four or five lectures culminates in a seminar led by doctors or dentists. High school seniors, as second year participants, attend weekly sessions in human physiology taught by the faculty at the medical center. At the end of two years, participants receive certificates of participation for their records. Also, their progress through postsecondary schools is followed.

Outcomes

Participants, through their contact with professionals in academic as well as informal environments, gain a way to increase their sense of maturity as well as their medical knowledge. The training they receive is designed to help prepare them for future careers in the medical profession. Through this program it is hoped that students will also become aware and proud of their unique capabilities and gain self-confidence. The medical students as well as the professionals who volunteer their time to this program gain an opportunity to influence and guide motivated youth and with it a way to enhance their own sense of self-worth and community service.

Contact
Peter Stewart, Director
University of Mississippi Medical Center
2500 N. State Street, Jackson, Miss. 39216
(601) 968-4910

Junior Educators of Tomorrow (JET)

Community Characteristics

This program has been successful in rural communities where there are high rates of unemployment and poverty, and a strong need for additional social and educational services for youth and the elderly.

Participants

There are no formal requirements for participants.

Summary

JET began as a way to combat community apathy and to enlist the aid of community members in building a Community Activities Center. Today, *JET* is a major community resource, providing a variety of programs for the young and old to share. Programs offered include parents teaching other parents reading or cooking skills; a student/senior citizen exchange where the elderly learn or relearn academic skills while teaching youngsters practical or artistic skills; a nutrition program which provides free food to senior citizens 60 or older; an adult education program where teachers provide schooling to the elderly in exchange for their unique skills and experiences; a day care center for handicapped adults run by community volunteers; and Teen Age Parents Prevention (TAPP) where teenage parents 13 to 21 years old counsel their peers.

Outcomes

Youth who take part in *JET* are gaining the opportunity to develop communication skills and to increase their understanding and appreciation of the elderly and the handicapped. In turn, the elderly have a chance to work with young people and perhaps gain a clearer understanding of and respect for them. Both young and old have the opportunity to teach each other many skills such as reading, cooking, arts and crafts. This opportunity can lead to a greater sense of self-esteem and self-fulfillment. The many recreational activities sponsored by *JET* enable youngsters to develop their physical potentials. In addition to providing an organizational framework for community improvement and education, *JET* can help a community gain a sense of unity and help give community members a sense of cooperation, purpose, and self-direction.

Contact
Mrs. Jessica Battle
Route 1, Box 124 A
Hurtsboro, Ala. 36860

Project JONAH

Community Characteristics

There are no community characteristics associated with this program.

Participants

There are no formal requirements for participants, but different activities suggest differences in adult supervision or in children's ages.

Summary

Project JONAH is an international program which strives to educate children about sea mammals and to raise children's awareness of the plight of whales and dolphins. Toward these ends, the Project offers guidance for children who want to find out about these mammals. *Project JONAH* sponsors a "Save the Whales" campaign, in which children write letters of protest to embassies of countries that are still killing whales indiscriminately. Potential activities suggested by *Project JONAH* include making scrapbooks of whale articles and pictures to share with other children; designing and creating a "Save the Whales" button; exhibiting artistic renderings of whales; writing and sharing poetry about whales; and writing press releases for local newspapers to publicize the efforts of *Project JONAH*.

Outcomes

Children who are in *Project JONAH* can increase their research, reading, and writing skills as they learn about whales and dolphins. The Project helps them develop an understanding of the concept of extinction and its consequences. The children's verbal communication skills can be sharpened through discussion of the issues involved in protecting endangered animals. In *Project JONAH* students can engage in verbal and written activities aimed at making others aware of the extinction problem and, as a result, they often develop leadership skills. As the children involve themselves in this cause, they often increase their sense of compassion, self-esteem, and responsibility.

Contact
Joan McIntyre, President
Project JONAH
Box 40280
San Francisco, Calif. 94140

Project STOP

Community Characteristics

This program has been operated in several urban and suburban communities in California.

Participants

Student trainees are 7th and 8th graders who are academically able and willing to tutor younger students in crime prevention.

Summary

STOP is a school crime prevention and law awareness project designed to help schools establish a cross-age teaching program where older children teach younger ones. The teaching units themselves are structured by the professional staff of *STOP*. These units make it easy for the young people to learn various teaching strategies, such as role playing and puppetry, that will help them in their roles as teachers. Materials provided by *STOP* include films, a teacher's instructional manual, and a student's manual. The 7th and 8th grade student instructors are divided into teams of three, each team being responsible for teaching a group of elementary school children about one of the many topics offered: vandalism, drug abuse, shoplifting, juvenile justice, and the like.

Outcomes

The 7th and 8th grade participants are given a chance to gain a greater sense of responsibility and self-esteem by assisting in this crime prevention program. Along with the elementary school children they teach, the middle school participants can increase their knowledge and awareness of crime and its prevention. Teaching also helps them strengthen their leadership and communication skills.

Contact
Mrs. June Sherwood
Office of the Attorney General
Los Angeles Headquarters Office
3580 Wilshire Blvd. - 9th Floor
Los Angeles, Calif. 90010
(213) 736-2366

Running the School Store

Community Characteristics

Although strictly speaking, this activity is not a community program, we are summarizing it this way because it is an extracurricular activity.

Student Participants

There are no formal requirements for participation. The activity is suggested for 6th graders.

Summary

The school store, which sells pencils, paper, and other supplies to students and teachers is operated by the 6th grade students. Two student clerks, elected by their peers, run the store. One clerk keeps track of the inventory, and one keeps track of the money. Two student managers, also chosen by their peers, oversee the inventory and the treasury clerks. These managers review each day's transactions and deposit the money with the school secretary. All receipts are given to a student bookkeeper whose work is checked by the teacher in charge. In order to stock the store, determine the hours, create the advertising, and decide upon other school store rules, the 6th graders hold meetings. Each 6th grade class is represented at these meetings by individual officers who report their class's ideas and suggestions. These officers then report back to their classmates who vote on the decisions.

Outcomes

Students develop decision-making and leadership skills as they carry out the responsibilities involved in running a school store. They increase their awareness of consumer needs and become familiar with merchandising. They also increase their arithmetical and communication skills. Assuming the role of store managers increases their feelings of pride, responsibility, and contribution. Being given this responsibility also helps them develop their sense of self-esteem.

Contact
Vinita Hoffman
223 West 14th St.
Hutchinson, Kan. 67501

Students-as-Teachers

Community Characteristics

Although strictly speaking this is not a community program, we are summarizing it because it applies to all subject areas and it can be incorporated into any school program.

Student Participants

There are no formal requirements for participation. The activity is suggested for junior and senior high school students.

Summary

At regular intervals during a semester, students volunteer to assume the role of teacher for one lesson. Weekly research and preparation time are provided to allow the students to select topics, develop materials, and prepare the lesson. The teacher gives each volunteer a summary of the major goals and ideas to be included in the lesson. Before actually teaching, the students get the teacher's approval of their lesson plan. Students then use their own initiative and imagination in developing and delivering the lesson.

Outcomes

Students volunteer to take part in teacher role sharing to develop their research and communication skills while developing their leadership ability. The experience helps them develop an awareness of teacher attitudes, expectations, and values. Their self-image is strengthened as they plan and implement a lesson on a specific topic. The class benefits from the interest and enthusiasm of the student-as-teacher who often motivates them to become more eager to participate and learn.

Contact
Terry Rinehart, Principal
Livingston Co. V-IV
Wheeling, Mo. 64688

Solar Pioneers

Community Characteristics

The specific project may vary according to the specific location of the community involved. This project's solar-powered building was designed according to the environmental needs of Lee County, Florida.

Student Participants

Participants in this project are 7th and 8th graders from 8 middle schools and students from the county's vocational-technical high school.

Summary

Solar Pioneers grew out of a need to solve a classroom space problem. Students decided they needed a new, larger classroom. After researching wind power, water cooling systems, and wood burning heat systems, they chose a building that utilized solar power. Each of the middle school students (alone or in pairs) spent time developing a working scale model and after presenting their ideas to one another, the class chose a composite design. The blueprints were drawn up by drafting students from the vocational-technical high school who were guided by local architects. Volunteers from the community, parents, and students started the building and to date the support pilings and framing have been completed. In addition, the middle school students have developed an audiovisual presentation and pamphlets describing their project and the technology involved in building a solar powered shelter.

Outcomes

In this program, students have the chance to learn a large number of technical, research and practical skills as a consequence of planning, designing, and building a cost-efficient, energy-efficient classroom. They can increase their knowledge of energy conservation and solar technology. They can develop an understanding of the technical steps involved in going from idea to reality as they sharpen their problem-solving and research skills. This activity provides opportunities for youngsters to learn useful communication and leadership skills by working with others such as vocational-technical students, community resource people, local architects, and contractors. The high school vocational-technical students are given the opportunity to improve the mastery of particular skills in masonry,

drafting, plumbing, and so on, in a real world experience. Both the middle and high school students can get a taste of success and this helps give them a sense of community contribution and self-esteem.

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Teaching-Learning Communities Program(T-LC)

Community Characteristics

There are no community characteristics associated with this program.

Student Participants

Children in kindergarten through the sixth grade may volunteer to participate in the Teaching-Learning Communities Program.

Summary

The *Teaching-Learning Communities Program* is designed to enable retired persons (called "grandpersons") over 60 years of age to share their skills and knowledge with elementary school children. The program is one of choice for all participants and can be established in an elementary school by the principal and one or more cooperating teachers. An important aspect of considering such a program is available space. Space is needed for conducting workshops and for any aides that might be brought in for the project. Prospective grandpersons can be made aware of a *T-LC* program's existence through community newsletters and bulletin boards, friends and other publicity. They may then call the school to offer their skills and the times they are available. Usually, *T-LC* projects run 4 to 6 weeks, 2 hours a week throughout a semester. During these sessions, about five children interact with one grandperson while learning a particular skill or subject. Presently there are 11 elementary schools involved; and sessions include poetry writing, lacemaking, woodworking, marionette design and construction, and dramatics.

Outcomes

Children are given the chance to increase their knowledge or learn new skills under the close tutelage of elderly persons. They can gain a better understanding of grandpersons and learn to communicate with and respect those older than themselves. The grandpersons develop more self-esteem as a result of sharing their skills and all participants may experience personal development from the close interaction involved in *T-LC*.

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Youth and Law

Community Characteristics

This program operates in a white-collar community near an urban area which has a juvenile treatment center for boys nearby that is willing to work with the school.

Student Participants

Juniors and seniors in a private school for girls choose this project as an elective course. The requisites are parental permission and guidance counselor approval.

Summary

This program stresses the obligations of responsible citizenship by enlisting student volunteers to work as teachers in a nearby correctional institution. For one hour a week, the junior and senior students, under teacher supervision, visit the nearby Juvenile Secure Treatment Center to teach civil and criminal law cases to inmates. The program offers structured learning experiences which include examination of legal cases and situations and less structured discussion sessions between the students and inmates. Students spend an hour a week discussing their activities and experiences and preparing new material for their next visit.

Outcomes

By discussing law with the inmates of a juvenile treatment center, the students can broaden their perspectives and possibly develop an awareness of social problems. The program encourages the students to strengthen their knowledge of law and the juvenile justice system in a democratic society. The students also have a chance to sharpen their communication skills and use them in a real world setting. Their experiences contribute to their sense of empathy and their sense of responsibility. The people in the treatment center learn more about the law, and all involved can increase their understanding of how to change the legal system for the better. Being included in such a program can increase the inmates' sense of self-worth and allow them to strengthen communication and other skills that will be useful outside the institution.

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V. Summaries of Home Activities in *Words into Action: A Home and Community Guide to Children's Citizenship Education*

The following two practices primarily focus on recommendations associated with *Role Models*.

Looking at People, for children 5 to 8 years old, is meant to increase children's awareness of stereotyping and enable them to discover some common ethnic stereotypes. It involves a discussion of what Native Americans are thought to be like and then finding out their actual cultural characteristics through guided research. This activity can be done using any ethnic group.

"All Kids . . ." is for children 8 to 12 years old. In order to increase children's sensivity to stereotyping, this practice involves them in a discussion motivated by statements that begin with, "All kids . . .". Children are asked to talk about such generalizations (e.g., "All kids are wild," or "All kids have no respect for adults"), and they are encouraged to consider statements they've made about "all adults . . ." or "all girls . . .," and so on. The goal is to bring children to recognize that "all" of any group can't be judged by the actions of a few in that group.

The following six practices primarily focus on recommendations associated with *Institutional Environments*.

"What Would You Do If . . .?" is for children 5 to 8 years old and is designed to help children face difficult situations more responsibly by helping them develop their problem-solving and decision-making skills. Children are asked to respond to various situations which start with "What would you do if . . .?" (e.g., "What would you do if you were scolded for doing something you didn't know was wrong?"). Once they answer, the parent and children act out the situation and the children are encouraged to discuss their feelings about what goes on. Through reverse role play, alternative resolutions are acted out which help the child to consider other alternatives to the same situation.

Helping Hands, for children 5 to 8 years old, explores and clarifies the concepts of individual and family responsibilities. Children are asked to define responsibility as they see it, to talk about the kinds of responsibilities different members of their family have, and to choose a task as a personal responsibility.

A "Where I Live" Booklet is for children 5 to 8 years old. This practice helps increase children's awareness of the geography of where they live and it helps give them a stronger sense of pride in their neighborhood. Children locate their country, state, city, and street on various kinds of maps. They create a "Where I

Live" booklet by choosing neighborhood characteristics (e.g., houses, trees, yards, cars, animals, stores) to picture in a notebook. Children change the booklet's pages periodically as their neighborhood changes.

Country and City Folk, for children 8 to 12 years old, is a guided discussion of what it would be like for children to live in an environment quite different from their own. Children begin to recognize instances of stereotyping through this discussion, and they also develop clearer ideas about country and city living. City children are encouraged to explain what they imagine country dwellers to be like and country children are asked to do the same for city dwellers. Before engaging in discussions, children draw what they think country/city children may be like and complete statements like, "Country/City children ____ most of the day."

Encyclopedia Telephonia, for children 8 to 12 years old, provides practice in research and word definition skills while giving children a sense of how much information they can find in the telephone book. It also helps them discover the many types of services and stores that are located in their community. Parents prepare questions based on the use of the telephone book (e.g., "What number do you dial in case of an emergency? How many pediatricians are listed in the telephone book? Does one live near us?"). For this activity, children may also prepare questions they feel will challenge their parents.

Daily Responsibility Timetable is for children 8 to 12 years old. It clarifies children's concept of responsible behavior and helps develop their awareness of the interdependency of family responsibilities. Children also begin to learn how to manage their time. After they explore individual responsibilities in the home, children make Daily Responsibilities Timetables. The timetables show the parent's schedule as well as the child's. On these timetables, which are fashioned after clocks (one for parents and one for child), parents' and childrens' responsibilities are printed beside the times when the responsibilities are carried out. The clocks are compared and contrasted (i.e., who does what and when) to help children see differences and similarities in family responsibilities. As family or individual responsibilities change, the entries are changed.

The following four practices primarily focus on recommendations associated with *Individual Development*.

The Good Inside Us, for children 5 to 8 years old, enables them to recognize that similarities and differences exist among people. Each child is given two apples. Then the apples are mixed together. The children are then asked to find their particular two. This game leads to an exploration of how people are simultaneously alike and different. The apples are eventually cut to reveal a star shape in the center. The children and parent then talk about what is special inside each individual human being.

Labels is for children 5 to 8 years old and aims to help children understand stereotyping by focusing on appearances. After removing labels from four cans of food, the parent asks his/her child to pick a can of corn (or peas, fruit, whatever) from the group. This activity leads to an exploration of how hard it is to judge things and people from the outside.

Race to the Register is for children 8 to 12 years old. This activity is designed to increase children's awareness of consumer responsibilities and to help them practice their adding and subtracting skills. In this game, children and parents create a supermarket gameboard on which they play a shopping game. Players are given a fixed amount of money for purchases. They move around the board buying the products they land on, hoping to get to the register first. Once there, the products are checked out. If the children spend within their limit, they win. The rules to this game are flexible enough to include changes which may require them to use more advanced computation skills such as deriving percentages. The gameboard can be made to fit any kind of store.

A Multicultural Cookbook is for children 8 to 18 years old. After researching foods and meals associated with various cultures, children and their parents create a multicultural cookbook. They use the cookbook from time to time to help make many of the recipes. Through this activity, children can develop an awareness and appreciation of various cultures as they learn how to prepare ethnic foods and meals.

VI. Summaries of Community Activities and Programs In *Words into Action: A Home and Community Guide to Children's Citizenship Education*

The following three programs primarily focus on recommendations associated with *Role Models*.

Teenage Health Consultants (TAHC) can operate successfully in any type of community. Adolescents are trained to provide educational and counseling services to their peers. Activities include running after-school referral centers for other teenagers with problems; offering guidance and counseling in junior and senior high school health classes; and making presentations. TAHC members also have developed videotapes on health issues such as smoking. Such activities benefit the participants by increasing their communication and problem-solving skills, while helping their peers and others learn accurate mental and physical health information.

Golden Bridge Project illustrates some recommendations associated with role models and may operate successfully in any community which has a significant population of elderly citizens. Young people aged 14 to 17 train to become Junior Aides to the community's elderly people. In this capacity, they provide companionship and various other services for their clients which include housework, writing letters for them, reading to them, and so on. Through participation, young people can learn about the problems of elderly people and gain a sense of contribution to their community.

Emergency Home Repair Program has been successful in urban communities with housing problems. The goal is to provide youth aged 16 to 21 with the opportunity to work while improving the community's housing. High school students and public service employees work along with professional building contractors to repair the homes of the elderly or disabled citizens in the community. Participants increase their carpentry skills and their ability to communicate with elderly, handicapped, and professional adults. They also gain a sense of contribution to their community.

The next two programs primarily focus on recommendations associated with *Institutional Environments*.

Parent Participation TV Workshop can operate successfully in small towns or large cities. Children and adults gather together and watch particular television shows. With the help of a study guide prepared by TV workshop experts, a group leader initiates previewing and postviewing discussions which explore

different concepts brought out in the show, such as first love, friendship, or honesty. Participants are able to explore their own values, examine their attitudes and ideas, and develop a clearer view of themselves as well as others.

Citizenship in the Community was developed by the Boy Scouts of America. This program can operate successfully in any community. Boys who choose to complete this program earn a merit badge in Citizenship. Activities include researching the community's history, geography, and ethnic composition; investigating community problems and offering possible solutions; attending local government meetings; and participating in the activities of another community group (i.e., 4-H Club or the "Y"). The scout learns about his community and develops his leadership skills while improving his ability to solve problems.

The last two programs primarily focus on recommendations associated with *Individual Development*.

Project Unity has operated in urban and rural communities where poverty is common; the population predominantly black; and juvenile delinquency and the school dropout rates are high. Project Unity's members include many youngsters who are former delinquents as well as other community volunteers. They work together to beautify neighborhood buildings, restore community parks and provide guidance and counseling to younger children. Members of Project Unity also run a Community Youth Job Bank, and carry out a variety of sports activities.

Youth Identity Program has worked well in communities with gang problems, high youth unemployment, and high dropout rates. Problem youth, aged 9 to 20, can gain a sense of responsibility and self-esteem by participating in YIP activities, such as peer group and individual counseling, job placement services, vocational training (run by senior citizens), and a year round sports and physical development program.

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